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HOW TO FIND
THE RIGHT VOCATION

BOOKS BY THE SAME AUTHOR

HOW TO USE YOUR MIND

THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF THE COLLEGE STUDENT

THE MIND OF THE BUYER

SCIENTIFIC ADVERTISING

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF VOCATIONAL ADJUSTMENT

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HOW TO FIND THE RIGHT VOCATION

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HARPER & BROTHERS PUBLISHERS
NEW YORK AND LONDON

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HOW TO FIND THE RIGHT VOCATION

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Printed in the United States of America

First Edition

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PREFACE

THERE are approximately fifty million wage-earners in the United States. Of these about one-half are dissatisfied or inefficient in their work. Think of it, twenty-five million persons drag themselves wearily down to work daily, groaning over their lot and wishing that they could better it.

They try out all sorts of devices that offer hope of relief. They spend their money on nostrums that promise to reveal to them the secret of success; they take courses of training in this or that occupation in the hope that they can lift themselves from the deadly plane of hateful routine to a level of free achievement. But for the most part their efforts are unavailing. They fail to find the secret of success; they miss the vocation for which they were "cut out"; and they are unable to succeed in the new occupation for which they laboriously sought training, because they did not enter it with full knowledge of the qualifications required or the conditions to be met.

In addition to these pitiable misfits there are one hundred thousand college graduates and one

million high-school graduates who step forth annually into the occupational world. Having been cloistered within academic walls for most of their short lifetime, these young people have had no opportunity to learn about the occupations of the world—their number and variety, and the conditions to be met in them. These young people inquire: "What shall I do? What place is there in the world for me and how can I get into it?"

From these observations it is apparent that one of the most pressing needs of the world is vocational guidance. We may well agree with the representative of the International Bureau of Labor who said:

"Vocational guidance is a problem that interests directly the activity of the International Bureau of Labor because it constitutes one of the primary conditions for the realization of the program of reforms set forth in the preamble of Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles. It may be considered as the basis of practically all the measures prescribed in the treaty of peace for the amelioration of the conditions of work and for the realization of social justice, which must form the bases of universal peace.

"Having for its ideal the realization for each individual of the occupation which best suits his apti-

tudes and his tastes, and which procures for him the deepest and most lasting satisfactions, vocational guidance appears to be that condition of 'moral and intellectual well-being of wage-earners,' recognized by the signatory powers of the treaty of peace as being 'of primary importance from an international point of view.' "

The art of vocational guidance in the modern sense is only about twenty years old, but even in this short time it has developed a body of principles and methods which can give some relief to persons who seek to find happiness in their vocation. It is these principles and methods which have been compiled in this book. The book is written for the ultimate consumer who wants facts stated in non-technical language. The author has presented in consecutive order the various steps that one must take, and has outlined the guiding principles on which experts in vocational guidance are generally agreed.

It will serve as a guide to every lonesome soul who must work out his vocational salvation unaided. It will also meet the needs of professional counselors and teachers in educational institutions who give formal courses in Choosing a Vocation.

Mark Twain used to say that he never did a day's work in his life; and then he explained the paradox

by adding that if a job became hateful to him he would not engage in it, but would seek for some activity that would be play. His entire literary career, though one of considerable activity, was characterized by extreme pleasure. He loved his occupation so much that it was not hard work. It is this condition that everyone must achieve if he is to be perfectly adjusted in an occupation.

To every unhappy worker and every perplexed worker-to-be who would like to find an occupation which will be play instead of hateful slavery this book is addressed with the hope that it will assist him in achieving that happiness which comes from Finding the Right Vocation.

THE AUTHOR

NEW YORK CITY

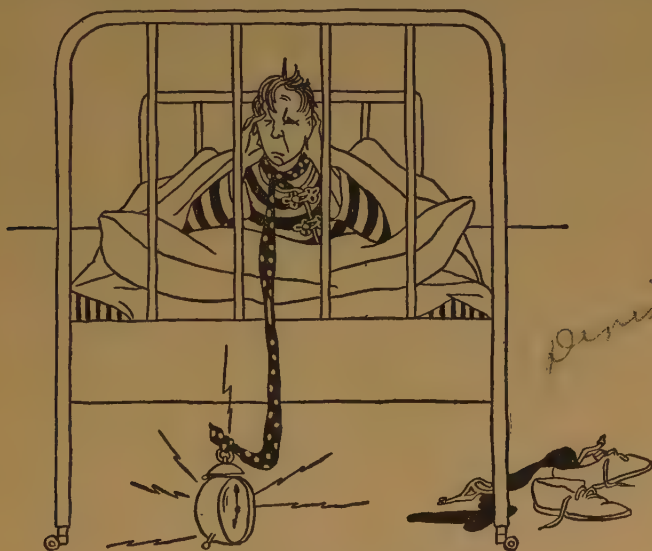
July, 1929

HOW TO FIND
THE RIGHT VOCATION

Chapter One

WILL YOU LET A FORTUNE-TELLER GUIDE YOUR CAREER?

Choice of vocation is a universal problem.—
One of the most serious questions confronting every young person is "What vocation shall I enter?"



"ANOTHER DAY OF GRIND!"

True, a few people select an occupation at an early age and adhere to their decision, but the number is small—perhaps 5 per cent of the population. The

majority drift along until the age of eighteen or nineteen, when they suddenly find themselves through school with no place to go. They take the first job they can get, and when they find it disagreeable or unsatisfactory, they leave it and hunt for something else. For years they may drift about from one job to another, always seeking and never finding that apex of human happiness—joy in work. If they do stick to their job, they do so not for love of the work, but because they are afraid to leave it, or because of family burdens.

Millions are vocationally maladjusted.—Such unhappy persons are veritable slaves. They arise every morning and groan, “Well, I must go down to another day of grind.” Instead of springing eagerly to their work, they drag themselves as a prisoner to his rock-pile. As a result they are unhappy, they fail to produce to the full extent of their capacity, and they earn less than they are capable of earning.

How many people are maladjusted vocationally no one knows exactly. From the remarks of employers who complain about the low efficiency of workers in general, we should judge that the number is very large. We can get some idea of its size from the number of persons who quit their jobs. An investigation made in a number of typical manufac-

turing concerns in an Eastern state showed that 50 per cent of the workers quit their jobs in one year. If this figure is representative of the country at large, it means that of the forty-seven million wage-earners in the United States, twenty-three million—one-half—leave their jobs every year. Either they resign voluntarily because they do not like the work or they are discharged by their employer as being unsuitable in some way. While not all of these cases represent maladjustment, it is safe to assume that the larger number do.

Further evidence concerning the number of workers who are misplaced vocationally comes from the testimony of workers themselves. In the course of a survey made in Richmond, Virginia, workmen in a number of trades were asked, "Do you think you are in an occupation that is harmonious with your abilities and your interests?" The number who replied in the negative was 40 per cent.

The vocational counselor in the Brooklyn Y. M. C. A. made a count of the number of young men who came to him expressing dissatisfaction with the work they were doing and asking help in finding another occupation. The number amounted to 40 per cent.

The Society for Promotion of Engineering Educa-

tion, composed of leading engineers in the United States who are interested in the recruitment and training of engineers, recently completed an investigation which showed that of every hundred men who begin a course of training in the engineering schools of the United States, less than forty ultimately are graduated. The other sixty are victims of vocational maladjustment. While of course many factors combine to prevent them from completing their course, the report shows that the most influential factor is "lack of ability and interest in engineering."

Some people seek the help of fortune-tellers.— A thoughtful young man who observes the unfortunate predicament of so many of his friends naturally hopes that he may escape a like fate. He feels that he can be a success if he gets into the right vocation. He does not know how to proceed, however, and when he hears about people who promise to read his vocational future, he visits them eagerly, spending considerable money and wasting much time.

Now scientists have brought forward many facts and have presented many arguments showing the unreliability of these fortune-tellers. We cannot review them all here, but we shall try to stress one of the grounds for rejecting such aids; namely, that

these fortune-tellers disagree among themselves, and make differing prescriptions. The point can be dramatically illustrated in terms of the experience of one young man who sought to find his way to a suitable vocation.

They sat opposite each other at a broad glass-topped table. The older man held in his hand a sheet of writing-paper on which was a letter from his *vis-à-vis*. On the desk before him lay several delicate instruments—a small pair of calipers, a finely graduated ruler, and a magnifying glass.

The younger man leaned forward in his chair:

"Well, Mr. Harrow, what vocational aptitude does my handwriting reveal?"

"My boy," announced the other, "you show unmistakable signs of possessing great engineering genius. The large sweeping loops on your l's and y's and g's indicate imagination. Your thick down strokes indicate positiveness. The careful joining of the two sides of the a's and o's indicates love of details and a tendency toward mathematical accuracy. All these qualities are those required of an engineer. Therefore I advise you to enter that profession. You are bound to succeed."

The young man drew a deep breath, rose, and put out his hand.

"Thank you, Mr. Harrow, for giving me an answer to my most perplexing question—what occupation to enter. I consider the two dollars which I am paying you for this analysis of my handwriting the best investment I have ever made in my life."

Ben Underwood had been spending his noon hour in consultation with a graphologist. He had seen the advertisement in the paper as he rode down to work that morning:

If you want to improve yourself and learn for what work you are best fitted, have a graphological analysis made. . . . As the physician recognizes a disease by its symptoms, such as fever, eruptions, swellings, inflammations, irregularities, etc., so the graphologist recognizes mental traits by handwriting symptoms or the peculiarities discernible.

The advertisement had struck Ben's eye because he was thinking very seriously about that very question: "What is my *real* vocation?" Here was some one who promised to tell him. Accordingly, as soon as the noon gong sounded at the bank where he was employed he had rushed over to the graphologist's office and obtained his reading.

Ben was just nineteen years old. He had been graduated from high school the preceding June and was casting about for an occupational field in which

he could permanently settle. For the present he was a messenger in the State Bank and the personnel director had suggested that he might eventually become president. But Ben did not like the bank. He objected to having so many bosses. He thought the eighteen dollars a week he was getting was entirely too small a sum for such a rich bank to pay. And he knew that between himself and the presidency stood a long array of tellers, cashiers, and other executives. Accordingly, he had seized upon the glowing advertisement of the graphologist.

When he returned to the bank at one o'clock Ben walked on air. At last he knew what was his real vocation. Now he wouldn't have to worry any more. He had to share the good news with some one, so he rushed up to Mamie, who had been in his graduating class in high school and was now working in the filing department of the bank.

"Mamie, I'm going to quit my job."

Mamie dropped the card of the Russell Milling Company into the "B" file in her agitation. "Why, Ben, what for?"

"I wasn't cut out for a banker."

"Who said so?"

"Mr. Harrow, the greatest graphologist in America. He analyzed my handwriting and found

that I was a born engineer. No more of this errand-boy stuff for me. I'm going to get into the line I was cut out for."

"But, Ben," Mamie wrinkled her forehead, "I don't think you ought to decide such an important matter without seeing what a palmist says. Why, I never think of doing anything without getting her advice! Let me introduce you to her. If I tell her you're a friend of mind she will give you a five-dollar reading for fifty cents."

So at eight o'clock that evening Ben called for Mamie and they walked around the corner to a Sixth Avenue building where the palmist lived. They entered a doorway and climbed a narrow wooden stairway. "Two more flights," said Mamie. And, lit by a dust-beclouded electric bulb hanging from the ceiling, they reached the top floor. On the door directly in front of them Ben read a sign which looked as though it had been beaten by the storms of many a circus side-show: "Zillah, she tells your past, present, and future."

Mamie fluttered her knuckles on the door, which opened a couple of inches to emit a husky, "Who's there?"

"It's Mamie." Instantly the door swung open and

a dumpish figure wrapped in a purple silk coffee-stained *négligé* enveloped Mamie in an embrace.

"Come right in, dearie. I have to be so careful of the darn police. They won't let a body earn an honest living any more. And you've brought your boy-friend. That's nice."

"Yes, Zillah," responded Mamie. "Ben wants his palm read so that he can tell what kind of work he was cut out for. Ben, put out your hand."

The palmist-lady took it in two pudgy hands which were smudged with something that looked suspiciously like strawberry jam. "My dear, you have a wonderful life line. You'll live a long, long time."

Ben squirmed in his chair. "But what I want to know is, what occupation was I cut out for?"

"What are you doing now, honey?"

Mamie supplied the information, "Ben is working at the bank with me."

The quondam pride of the Mammoth Side Shows, Inc., peered at the extended palm and uttered a squeal: "Why, the kid has a hand exactly like Mr. Stull's."

Ben gasped: "You don't mean Mr. Stull, president of the Consolidated Banks?"

"Of course. He's one of my regular customers.

I told him ten years ago that he would be president of the bank and now I find your lines tell the same thing. Blessings on you, my children."

At a signal from Mamie, Ben dubiously fished a half dollar from his pocket and handed it to the palmist.

As they picked their way down the steep stairs Mamie squeezed his arm, "Now you won't have to leave the bank, will you, Ben?" And they went to a movie.

But Ben had a feeling of uneasiness. He knew he did not like banking, at least the part of it that he had encountered. And he saw the long line of clerks who stood between him and higher promotion.

The next day he went to Teller No. 8, who had treated him a little more humanly than the rest. "Mr. Whalen, how long have you been at this window?"

The teller pushed back his eye-shade. "Let me see. Thirteen—no, fourteen years this coming January. Why?"

"Oh, I just wondered how soon I might be president."

"Who told you you're going to be president?"

"Why Zillah, the palmist. She tells people what they were cut out for."

"Say, kid, don't fall for that stuff. What you want is a real character analyst."

"Character analyst? What's that?"

"Listen, stupid, you take this card down to Professor Franklyn and tell him I sent you."

Ben looked on the card and read:

Professor Franklyn, Ph.M., C.A., V.C.

Character Analyst

3523 Pinnacle Building

New York City

Reads your character and shows you how to win success by making use of your neglected talents.

Character analysis is based on the age-old principle that the face reflects the character and abilities of the individual. A person's "mental habits" and relative position in the human scale are clearly indicated in the features. You recognize the "strong mouth" or the "weak chin" instantly. These are quite general signs. But only through the Franklyn Method can the face be read scientifically to determine accurately the aptitudes of the individual.

Ben could hardly wait for the noon gong. As soon as it sounded he dashed around the corner to the drug store, gulped down a chocolate malted milk and a cheese sandwich, and then hurried to the

Pinnacle Building. Taking an express to the thirty-fifth floor, he found the door marked, "Professor Franklyn, Character Analyst and Vocational Counselor," and timidly entered. To the young lady he presented the card given him by his teller-friend. She took it to an inner room, returned immediately with a smiling invitation, and ushered Ben in.

The private office of Professor Franklyn was a whirlwind of weird charts, models of skulls, photographs and profiles of faces. Ben would have liked to examine them, but the professor put out his hand. "What can I do for you, Mr. Underwood?"

"I'd like to have a vocational analysis."

"Quite so. Sit down, please." Advancing to his client's chair, he began to take measurements. He applied a pair of calipers at various spots on the head, picked out bumps here and there and made a profile sketch. Finally resuming his seat, he placed the tips of his fingers together and made his pronouncement: "Young man, you are a perfect example of the rotund type. Rarely have I seen a better one. You are the typical legal character. Most judges have your characteristics. Make full use of your powers and you are bound to succeed. Five dollars, please."

"I'm sorry, Professor, I have only two dollars, but

I'll bring in the rest next week." And Ben descended in the elevator more perplexed than ever. "Engineer, banker, lawyer. Was I cut out for all these vocations? What's the matter with me, anyway?"



HE APPLIED A PAIR OF CALIPERS TO VARIOUS SPOTS ON THE HEAD AND FELT FOR BUMPS

Not knowing which of the vocational prescriptions to follow, Ben took the safe plan of holding on to his job at the bank, encouraged daily by Mamie of the files. But he was still unsatisfied. "Isn't there some way a fellow can tell what he was cut out for?"

One day he chanced to lunch with a former school-mate who was taking evening courses at the university. His psychology courses seemed to be his chief topic of interest, especially one entitled, vocational psychology. Ben pricked up his ears. "What is vocational psychology? Does it tell a fellow what vocation he was cut out for?"

"Not a bit of it," replied his student-friend. "Neither psychology nor any other science can tell what vocation you were cut out for, for the simple reason that you were not cut out for any particular vocation. Our prof. says that every person can succeed in a large number of occupations. And when you stop to think about it you see lots of people who do. Roosevelt was equally successful as a soldier, politician, hunter, historian, geographer, and writer."

"Yes," interjected Ben, "come to think of it, my brother-in-law out in Iowa runs a general store, plays the clarinet in the band, and took the prize at the county fair with the turnips he raised in his garden."

The budding psychologist went on: "I was reading the other day that Fritz Kreisler, besides being a violinist, was an army officer and an electrician; that Harold Bauer, the pianist, has invented an elec-

trical machine for treating neuralgia; that Cæsar Cui, the Russian composer, considered music only as an avocation; he was really professor of fortification and military strategy in the Russian Military Academy."

Ben interrupted: "But I've heard that psychologists have tests that will tell you what occupation you're fit for. I heard the personnel manager at the bank say that he might install them. Can a psychologist give you a test and tell you what to do?"

"Not on your life," his informant responded, pushing back his empty pie-plate. "The few tests you hear about are used only to find out whether a firm wants a particular man for a particular job. They can't tell anything about what other jobs he might succeed in. Listen to this." And he opened a notebook with a flourish: "'It is safe to say that individual biographies will never be written in advance, no matter how highly evolved psychology may become.' That's from William James, the daddy of them all. So you see not even scientific psychology can tell your future."

"What are you studying it for, then?"

"Because I'm going to be a personnel manager, and psychology will help me to understand people. Well, I must beat it. Keep your feet on the ground

and don't give all your money to the hot-air merchants. So long."

No one can foretell your future.—The world is full of young men like Ben who are asking, "What vocation shall I enter?" They shrink from answering the question themselves because they are afraid of making a mistake. Also, they have the desire, common to all men, to peer into the future. And just as men have for thousands of years, they visit conjurers of various guises in the hope of obtaining some supernatural aid. One after the other, these "oracles" deliver their pronouncements, but unfortunately they do not agree with one another, and the unhappy seeker is left as perplexed as he was before.

Scientific investigators have examined the claims of these modern "medicine-men" and have pronounced them false. Common-sense experience has revealed their unreliability. The wise man will conclude that he must *earn* his vocational salvation. He cannot achieve it through the medium of fortune-telling.

"But what," asks perplexed youth, "would you advise me to do?"

You must work out your own vocational salvation.—The solution to the difficulty will not be easy or rapid. There is no get-rich-quick or nickel-in-

the-slot method. You will have to study the occupations of the world to see what they are. You will have to examine yourself and discover your strong points and your weak points. Then you must set a goal and press steadily toward it in the light of the facts you have discovered.

You will need to study the lives of persons who have succeeded in your occupation and see how they proceeded. You will have to learn how to appeal to employers and how to make your personality attractive.

I shall endeavor, in this book, to outline the steps one may take in choosing an occupation on a sensible basis. And though I shall not offer a vocational nostrum which will cure vocational ills overnight, I hope to be able, by describing these rational steps in a matter-of-fact way, to help a young person to answer the question, "What vocation shall I enter?"

Chapter Two

"WHAT VOCATION WAS I CUT OUT FOR?"

Examples of vocational maladjustment.—"I am a young man twenty-three years of age. I was graduated from high school in 1924, and since then



"WHAT VOCATION WAS I CUT OUT FOR?"

I have been working as inspector in a shoe factory. I realize that I am reaching the age when I should be settling in some occupation, but I do not know what

occupation I was cut out for. I believe that people are similar to cut-out picture puzzles and that they work best when fitted in the proper places. I do not want to be a square peg in a round hole. I am interested in teaching, I am interested in religion, and I should like to be a writer. What should I do?"

"Although I am thirty-three years old, I have never 'found myself,' have never found the calling that God intended me to follow in order to make the fullest use of my mental and physical powers. Can you tell me how I can find out what this calling is?"

Misconceptions about vocational aptitude.—These extracts are quoted verbatim from two of the hundreds of inquiries that have come to me. They indicate several things: first, that an appalling number of young people are perplexed by the question, "What vocation shall I enter?" second, that a large number of persons are already engaged in callings that are uncongenial or unsuitable to them; third, that a good many people—perhaps the majority—hold the idea that everyone is cut out at birth for a particular occupation. If he finds this occupation he will be successful. If he never discovers it he will be a failure.

As evidences of that belief we hear phrases such as this: "He is a natural-born actor"; "I was not cut out for the life of a traveling man"; "Poets are born, not made"; etc.

Errors in current beliefs.—Although we may in our fatalistic moments be tempted to utter phrases such as these, we must recognize, when we stop to examine them, that they cannot reasonably represent true conditions. One of the important objections is that the occupational conditions existing when a person is born may be markedly changed by the time he is grown. The occupations, just like living creatures, are subject to the phenomena of birth and decay. Think of the new occupations that have grown up during the past twenty-five years: automobile repair man, aviator, bacteriologist, chauffeur, garage-keeper, radio-installer, radio announcer, radiologist, saxophone-player, structural-steel worker, etc. And think of the number of occupations that have died or are dying: bartender, horseshoer, etc. To be more specific, how could anyone who was present at the birth of Charles Lindbergh in 1902 have foretold that he would be an aviator? How could anyone have forecast even ten years ago that Graham McNamee would be a radio announcer?

Furthermore, although an occupation may remain

relatively stable, many changes may occur within the occupation which require workers to do different types of things. As an illustration take the occupation of printer. A generation ago a printer spent his time chiefly in setting type. Today, however, because of the invention of linotypes, monotypes, and other mechanical contrivances, a "printer" may perform duties quite different from those performed by his predecessor.

New tastes and abilities may develop.—Another reason why we cannot conceive of each person as "cut out" for a specific occupation at birth is that the individual himself may change. At one stage of his life he may be intensely interested in, for example, the study of the French language. This may serve as the stepping-stone on which he advances to an interest in French literature. This may lead to further development of an interest in international law. This in turn may lead the individual to go to a law school and prepare himself to serve on the bench of the World Court. It is quite a step from an interest in the French language and literature to the field of international law, but the whole distance may easily be traversed by one individual.

The above example points to one fundamental fact which is often ignored—namely, the human or-

ganism is highly adaptable. The number of different abilities that any individual may acquire is enormous. At birth he is a little bundle of plastic protoplasm. Rear him in a German family and he will grow up speaking German as his mother tongue. Rear him in a Russian family and he will speak Russian. Put him in a Japanese family and he will speak Japanese. Bring him up in a bilingual family or a polylingual family, as many children are reared, and he will develop the ability to speak several tongues with equal ease.

We do not mean to imply that an individual can succeed in every one of the three thousand occupations. We are not taking the extreme position that an individual can succeed in everything. It is evident that obstacles exist which definitely bar certain persons from certain occupations. For example, a person who cannot discriminate between two tones as far apart as twenty double vibrations per second could hardly succeed as a singer. There are also definite limits to the intelligence of every individual which would prevent him from reaching a very high position in certain occupations. While we cannot assert, then, that an individual can succeed equally well in all occupations, we can state with certainty that he can succeed and be happy in several. It is

probable that 50 per cent of the people can succeed with a 50-per-cent degree of success in 50 per cent of the occupations.

A person can succeed in a number of vocations.—The factor that permits such diversification is the human brain, which serves as the medium for all these acquisitions. The brain is not stamped with a vocational pattern at birth. It is only a mass of minute fibers. As the individual grows and has experiences of one kind and another, these fibers branch out and connect with one another, and permit the coördination of muscles in various parts of the body. The same brain can serve as the mechanism for acquiring the ability to drive an automobile, drive a golf ball, play the violin, make a library table, assemble a radio, make a political speech, translate a page of Spanish, etc. In short, there is practically no limit to the kind of things that an individual can learn to do.

For proof of this we need only to look at the persons who can do a great variety of things. The American farmer of pioneer days was an adept at many vocations. As a mason he laid the foundation for his house; as a forester he cut timber; as a carpenter he erected his house; as an agriculturist he plowed; as a tool-maker he sometimes even made

his own plow; as a barber he cut his children's hair. His wife was equally skillful in many occupations. As a spinner she spun wool; as a weaver she wove cloth; as a dressmaker she made her own dresses; as a tailor she made the clothes of the male members of her family; as a canner she canned fruit; as a cook she prepared delicious meals. She was a laundress, nurse, and sometimes even physician. In our present-day society, organized on the basis of a minute differentiation of labor, she and her husband could have succeeded equally well in any one of the dozen occupations mentioned above.

The study of biography will reveal plenty of instances of vocational versatility. Garfield was in turn a teacher, college president, lawyer, soldier, politician—filling all these *rôles* with conspicuous success and pleasure to himself. Franklin was a printer, author, scientist—physicist we should call him today—diplomat, inventor. We mention these men simply because they are well known. There are millions of other men of lesser renown who have developed skill in just as many occupational fields and who have succeeded with equal degree in all. How absurd it is, then, for any individual to sit down and pine, "I wish I knew what I was cut out for."

As a matter of fact, if everyone were cut out on an unchangeable occupational pattern we should have a most uncomfortable world. Things would be utterly static. There would be no room for progress. No new occupations could arise, because there would be no persons who could enter them. The conditions existing in one generation would have to be perpetuated in the next, for the human organism would be incapable of adapting itself to change.

One of the most undesirable features of the theory that one is "born for" a certain vocation is that it is based on a fatalistic philosophy of life. One who believes that he was cut out for but one occupation takes the position that "whatever will be will be"; that the human will does not exist; that individual initiative is non-existent; that the individual is not responsible for his actions, he is simply a machine set in a niche to wag along the lines for which he was "predestined." Society long ago outgrew this doctrine as applied to moral affairs, and it insists on holding every normal individual responsible for his actions. On no other basis have we been able to build an enduring social structure. In the same way must we hold the individual responsible for making his vocational decisions. No mystical system of

fortune-telling and no social machinery of vocational guidance, however well organized, can take this responsibility from his shoulders.

If, as we have been contending, the individual is not predestined at birth for a particular vocation, we shall be obliged to adopt another view about vocational aptitude.

A tenable theory of vocational aptitude.—In the first place, we shall be obliged to admit that at birth an individual is not really fitted for any vocation. Furthermore, even after he is grown up and has acquired an education along the lines of some particular occupation, he has not reached his maximum of fitness. For example, a salesman, who may have already attained a considerable degree of success, must continue to study and train himself so as to become still more efficient. He takes courses in salesmanship, economics, public speaking, and psychology. He studies in his company school in order to learn more about the particular product he is selling. Indeed, most firms that employ large numbers of salesmen maintain a company school in which they oblige their salesmen, however good they may be, to take instruction for a certain period each year. Physicians, after they have taken their medical degree, take post-graduate courses and attend clinics in

order to increase their vocational efficiency. That this is the normal and not the exceptional procedure is shown by the fact that those persons who stand highest in their professions are the ones who exert the greatest efforts toward self-improvement and take ready-made fitness least for granted.

Fitness for a vocation is really an evolving thing. For example, many a young man who in 1915 prepared himself to be a telegrapher and worked successfully in that occupation, later stepped over into the field of radio operator. Then as he learned more and more about the radio business, and as the business itself developed, he entered another phase of it, perhaps the financial end, ultimately becoming a high official in the company. This, indeed, is the actual history of David Sarnoff, vice-president and general manager of the Radio Corporation of America. Another example of such evolution is Henry Ford, who started out as a machinist. His early dream was to be a watch-manufacturer. The next stage in his evolution was that of manufacturer of automobiles. But he did not stop there, for he has extended his activities as a manufacturer of airplanes, coal-mine operator, railroad operator, and finally as an antiquary.

From such examples we see that instead of being

cut out at birth for a particular occupation, one must continually adjust and readjust oneself in vocational life. Of course there are a few persons who, at an early age, determine that they are going to enter a particular occupation and actually remain in it for the rest of their lives. A number of musicians, actors, and missionaries assert that this has been their history. But the number is small, possibly not over 5 per cent of the working population. Most people have a history of progressions. They watch the changes going on in society, they develop new abilities, and they adjust themselves in accordance with these changes.

If we had a complete system of vocational guidance by which we could give each individual a vocational "vaccination" at the age of fourteen, it would not work, for the new inventions make so many changes in our social and economic life that the individual would have to make adjustments from time to time. And no vocational counselor, be he ever so omniscient, could foresee all the changes that will occur in society, or all the changes that may occur within the individual.

You must guide yourself.—In view of these considerations, we see that the individual is not to be

guided in the sense that he is vaccinated once and for all. Rather he must guide himself.

How can one do this? There are two principles one must follow: First, find out all you can about yourself. Study and observe yourself in order to detect your weaknesses and see where they must be strengthened. Second, study the occupational opportunities which the world offers. See how many and how varied are the kinds of work people are doing. Study a number of these in order to discover the nature of the work involved. Ascertain the conditions under which the work is done; the possible earnings and the promotional possibilities. It is a most fascinating undertaking, this directing oneself into a vocation. Naturally it is not easy and it cannot be done all in a moment, nevertheless it is the surest way to get what one wants.

We shall now outline in greater detail the methods by which one may carry on this analysis of himself and of the vocations, and though we cannot answer the question, "What vocation am I fit for?" we may help each person to answer the question, "For what occupation *may I fit myself?*"

Chapter Three

EXPLORING THE OCCUPATIONS

"He that hath a trade hath an estate."

—BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Most people drift into their vocations.— Most people, if asked how they got into their present oc-



MOST PEOPLE FALL INTO THEIR JOBS BY ACCIDENT

cupation, would reply that it was by accident. For the most part they simply drifted. They needed a job and took the first one they found.

This procedure, common though it may be, is really an irrational way of determining such an important matter as one's vocation. People are much more careful about affairs of considerably less importance. When a man goes to select an overcoat he spends a long time trying on first one and then another, scrutinizing the color, examining the fabric, paying close attention to style and, above all, fit.

Surely one should exercise as much caution in choosing a vocation as one uses in choosing his wearing apparel. Yet the fact is that most people do not do so. Instead of searching for a *vocation*, they look for a *job*, and they take the first one that promises to pay a living wage, regardless of its suitability or its desirability as a life work.

The result is that large numbers of people find themselves in positions that are uncongenial and in the long run unprofitable. After a long period of years spent in undirected employment at diverse kinds of work they exclaim, "I wish I had picked out a good line of work when I was young, and had stuck to it. Then I would have got somewhere instead of being in the rut where I am today."

Wise choice of vocation requires study.—There is one way to avoid such a predicament. That is to choose your vocation deliberately and plan your

career as carefully as you would plan a new house. Instead of depending on accident, luck, or emotion, exercise reason.

Now it is an established psychological principle that in order to reason effectively about a vocation, one must have facts—facts about the vocation, and facts about oneself. How to obtain information about a vocation will be the subject for consideration in this chapter.

Occupations are numerous and varied.—The ignorance of most people, especially young people, with respect to the occupational world is appalling. In order to test your own knowledge, take pencil and paper and write down all the occupations you can think of offhand. At best you can probably think of about one hundred, mostly the commoner professions, such as lawyer, physician, engineer—occupations which are for the most part overcrowded. But these are only the merest fraction of the various occupations in which men and women are engaged. The United States Census contains the names of several hundred occupational groups, each of which may be subdivided into many other groups. Altogether the separate occupational jobs number many thousands.

Not only are the available occupations more nu-

merous than most people imagine; many of them are also extremely interesting and are less crowded than others. Let us pick at random a few of those listed in the census: actuary, annealer, chemical engineer, craneman, coppersmith, lapidary, slater. We do not hear them mentioned very often. Still, they are highly interesting occupations, of excellent repute, and are less crowded than many of the better-advertised occupations.

But the latest official census, now nine years old, fails to mention some of the most interesting and necessary occupations in modern life, by reason of the fact that they have come into being since the census was taken. Many examples are found in the motion-picture field. Consider the still more recently-fledged business of radio manufacturing and broadcasting which has created the new occupations of radio announcer, director of broadcasting station, installer, etc., and which employs tens of thousands of persons.

Or consider the field of aviation which embraces the new vocations of pilot (several classes), aëronautical engineer, airplane designer, airplane-rigger, meteorologist, etc., and which is estimated to employ ten thousand persons.

Think of the new occupations of radiologist,

household decorator, personnel manager, visiting teacher, public-health nurse, deep-sea diver, offset pressman, dietitian. And imagine the other occupations that will develop in new fields such as television and the like.

A cursory survey of the occupational world will reveal a host of occupations of such variety as to invite the talent and interest of persons of all kinds and degrees of ability.

Even in a small community where one might expect occupational opportunities to be restricted, there is still a considerable degree of diversity. A survey made in a small town in Virginia containing fifteen hundred inhabitants disclosed the fact that sixty-seven occupations were followed by the inhabitants.

From these observations we can see that the occupational world is immense; that it offers an overwhelming number and variety of jobs; that these occupations are extremely interesting; and that the more obscure they are the more interesting they may really be.

How to study an occupation.—After you have discovered the amazing number and variety of occupations you will next face the task of reducing the number to a select few, which you will seriously

study with a view to selecting one in which to specialize. You can proceed part of the way by elimination, for certain of the occupations will be ruled out by consideration of geographical location or something else beyond your control. But there will still be left a list of occupations in any one of which you might become interested and in which you might succeed. Your task will then be to become acquainted with them.

There are three ways in which you can learn about them—reading about them, asking questions of persons who are engaged in them, and actually engaging in them yourself on an experimental or apprentice basis.

There is a fourth method which was used by Benjamin Franklin: His father intended that Benjamin should follow his own trade of tallow-chandler (candle-maker). "But," Franklin writes in his autobiography—which, by the way, is one of the best documents a young man can read before starting on his own career—"my dislike to the trade continuing, my father had apprehensions that if he did not put me to one more agreeable, I should break loose and go to sea, as my brother Josiah had done, to his great vexation. In consequence, he took me to walk with him, and see joiners, bricklayers,

turners, braziers, etc., at their work, that he might observe my inclination, and endeavor to fix it on some trade or profession that would keep me on land."

This method, sensible though it is, can be employed in only a limited way today, partly because so much of our manufacturing is done in large factories inaccessible to visitors, partly because the number of occupations is so much greater than it was in Franklin's day.

Go to the library first.—The most practical and economical way to begin your quest is to go to the library. Many librarians are trying to meet the insistent calls for vocational guidance by setting aside a shelf or a section of open shelves as a "Vocational Division." You may find most of the books you want in this section. Otherwise look in the card catalogue for books dealing with the occupations that you wish to study.

Suppose, for example, you are interested in the occupation of journalist. Listed in the card catalogue will be found several titles: *The Profession of Journalism*, by Bleyer (Boston, Atlantic Monthly Press, 1918); *Opportunities in the Newspaper Business*, by Lee (New York, Harpers, 1919); *The Young Man and Journalism*, by Lord (New York,

Macmillan, 1922); *The Newspaper Man*, by Williams (New York, Scribners, 1922).

After you have read the books, go to the *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature* and look up recent magazine articles. In general the long-established vocations will be described in books, while the newer ones will be treated in magazine articles of recent date. For example, you will find reference to an article on the vocation of athletic coach in *American Boy* for September, 1924. Numerous articles will be found on the vocations of cartoonist, aviator, deep-sea diver, and the like, all accessible in your public library.

You will also find much information and "atmosphere" in the trade and professional periodicals published in the interests of various occupational groups. To get an idea of their number, note the periodicals published for and read by architects: *American Architect*, *Architecture*, *Architectural Forum*, *Architectural Record*, *Architectural Review*, *Journal of American Institute of Architects*, *Landscape Architecture*.

The amount of literature available will naturally vary with the occupations. On some occupations you will find abundant materials, on others not very much.

You will also encounter another unfortunate fact: a good part of the literature regarding an occupation is technical in nature, telling how to perform the processes involved in the work. While this will give you an insight into the operations performed in the occupation, it will not answer some of the most important questions you would like to know about.

Within recent years a new kind of book has developed which contains sections on a number of occupations bound in a single volume. A few of these may be mentioned: *An Outline of Careers*, by E. L. Bernays, (New York, Doubleday, Doran, 1927); *Success through Vocational Guidance*, by J. McKinney and A. M. Simons (Chicago, American School, 1922).

Even such books, helpful though they try to be to the young man who seeks to choose a vocation intelligently, contain generalities which fail to answer exactly the questions you would like to have answered. One such book consists of twenty-one chapters, each written by a prominent representative of a different occupation. One would think that the statements made by these men would be pointed and unambiguous, yet they are extremely vague. Take for example this paragraph: "The man who

would enter the profession of — must have capacity for sustained purposive study. His basic mental qualification is the power to reason straight and correctly and the ability to analyze; and then he must have the ability to stick. Finally, don't forget the importance of integrity." To what occupation does this refer? It comes from a chapter on the profession of Accountant, written by a prominent accountant, but it applies as well to hundreds of other occupations.

Another weakness in these compilations is that they stress the professions and neglect the trades. Furthermore, they deal with the commoner occupations, but omit the very ones about which information is most needed.

Talk with successful workers.—Fortunately, you will not need to depend solely on reading to find out about the occupations on your list. As another recourse you can talk with persons who are engaged in the occupations. In selecting these individuals be careful to choose men whose judgment you can rely on. Do not select one who is obviously a failure in the occupation. On the contrary, it is not necessary to seek the most successful. The chief thing is to find an individual who has good judgment, a

broad attitude toward all questions and an interest in helping his fellow-man.

In interviewing such an individual you will need to be on your guard lest he spend the time recounting his personal experiences without answering the questions you ask. Human beings when talking about their occupations are prone to digress and, with natural egocentricity, tell "what a great man am I."

Even with the best of intentions, many a successful man will be unable to answer some of the questions you ask him about his own vocation. Most well-informed engineers, for example, will not be able to tell you how many chemical engineers there are in the United States; which field has the greater number of workers, mechanical or civil engineering; how much money the average engineer makes; whether your chances would be better in the field of mining engineering or electrical engineering; whether it would be better for you, in case you chose civil engineering, to go to work for a private concern or for the government or open up a consulting office of your own.

The reason you would have trouble getting answers to such questions is that in the case of most of the occupations such facts are not known by

anybody. They await the scientific analysis and investigation of the occupations. Such investigations are being started in certain occupations, however, and they are bound to come in others, and the results will, we hope, be embodied in the literature for the vocational guidance of the coming generation, even if they will not help this generation.

Try out one or more occupations.—The third method of becoming acquainted with the occupations on your list, that of engaging in them on an experimental or apprentice basis, while the most effective of all, can be applied in only a limited degree. The easiest way is to use one's summer vacations in trying one's hand at various vocations. Perhaps a single summer would give a young man contact that would enable him to decide whether he would like to go farther in that occupation. Or one might start out frankly on a period of exploration, and devote a year or two to trying out several fields which his reading had led him to consider as possibly suitable vocations.

In making your study of the vocations you should use an outline as a guide. This outline should call for consideration of each occupation from several points of view—physical, physiological, mental, social, economic. Such an outline will be easier to fol-

low if prepared in the form of questions. The following list of questions covers the essential points. You may use them in studying each occupation. Take a piece of paper and write down the answers as you find them:—

OUTLINE FOR THE STUDY OF AN OCCUPATION

How many people in the United States are engaged in this occupational field?

Where does the occupation rank in numerical importance as compared with other occupations?

What are the leading subdivisions of the field?

What is the beginning job at which one can get a start in the occupation?

What is the next step to which I might be promoted?

What are the successive steps I would take on the way to the top?

What wages could I earn at the beginning job; at each of the successive steps?

What specialized training should I obtain in order to succeed in the occupation?

How long would it take to obtain the necessary training?

How much general education should I have before beginning the specialized training?

Where can I obtain the technical training required?

How much will it cost?

Does this vocation present any particular health hazards?

Is capital needed to start?

Does it require more intelligence than I possess?

What particular qualifications, physical or mental, should I have?

What is the nature of the work: Just what does the worker do? Does he manipulate things or people? Does he work outdoors or indoors? Fast or slow? What hours does he spend?

Is employment generally steady or seasonal?

What are the particularly objectionable features?

What are the special advantages, physical, social, or otherwise, in the occupation?

Difficulty of obtaining answers to some questions.—As was said before, at the present state of our knowledge it will be difficult to obtain answers to some of the most important of these questions. For example, one of the first things one would like to know is, whether or not the occupation is overcrowded. The young man of this generation will not be satisfied with the bromide handed out to the youth of a previous generation, "There is always room at the top." He wants an unambiguous answer. Unfortunately, we have as yet no index that will serve as a measure of the supply and demand for workers in a given occupation. Perhaps we shall some day have a government agency which will issue index figures showing the occupations that are overcrowded and those that need workers. Await-

ing that time, one can still get some idea of the relation between supply and demand by observing the relative wages paid. If the wages in a certain occupation are relatively low we can infer that the occupation is relatively overcrowded; an occupation in which the wages are relatively high is usually one in which there is brisk demand for workers.

Again, it will be hard to obtain an answer regarding earnings. In the case of trades that are pretty well unionized, the hourly rates can easily be obtained, but if these are seasonal occupations it will be hard to discover the total annual earnings. The United States Department of Labor has made some investigations of certain seasonal occupations, many of their findings being published in the *Labor Review Monthly*.

Probably the best procedure is to compare the wages paid in one occupation with those paid in another. While the absolute figures may not be perfect indices, the relation between the two will be enlightening.

Probably the greatest difficulty in obtaining accurate information regarding earnings will come in the case of the professions. Here the earnings vary greatly. There are some lawyers who earn only \$2,000 a year, while others at the other end of the

scale earn \$200,000. It would be difficult to find the true average.

Again, the earnings of men in the professions vary with age and number of years spent in the occupations. For example, an investigation of electrical engineers made by the Society for the Study of Engineering Education showed that during the first year after graduation from college these men earned on the average \$1,750; fifth year, \$2,750; tenth year, \$4,000; twentieth year, \$5,500. Thus we see that it is of little use to ask the question, "What does an 'average' worker in this occupation earn?" without taking into account the variation that comes from the number of years the individual has spent in the occupation.

Each vocation includes many specialties.—Let us suppose that by such investigating you have narrowed down your choice to one occupational field. There will still be decisions for you to make. For each occupation has many subdivisions. For example, the occupation of engineer has twenty-two varieties:

1. Aëronautical engineering
2. Agricultural engineering
3. Architectural engineering
4. Ceramic engineering

5. Chemical engineering
6. Civil engineering
7. Electrical engineering
8. Electro-chemical engineering
9. Fire-protection engineering
10. Flour-mill engineering
11. Gas engineering
12. Geological engineering
13. Industrial and commercial engineering
14. Marine engineering
15. Mechanical engineering
16. Mining engineering
17. Petroleum engineering
18. Railroad engineering
19. Sanitary engineering
20. Sugar engineering
21. Textile engineering
22. Ventilating engineering

Accordingly, you would have to study each subdivision in order to be able to decide which one to enter.

The department-store field is subdivided into several branches. If one goes into the merchandising end he will be engaged in buying and selling, or alterations, specializing in some one line such as jewelry, furs, draperies, and the like.

If he goes into the publicity division he will write advertising copy, make placards, prepare window displays, etc.

If he goes into the service division, he may work in the delivery department, the traffic department, personnel and welfare, heating, etc.

Finally, there is the finance department, in which one handles cash, makes collection, computes pay roll, and so forth.

Accordingly, you would have to study each subdivision in order to be able to decide which one to enter.

From these examples you can see that choosing an occupation requires study as well as thought. The study should be just as intensive as that done in any school subject such as geography, history, or physics. And while such study will not in itself guarantee success, it will illuminate the path so that you will be able to see at least a few steps in advance on the road to a satisfying vocation.



Chapter Four

LIVES OF GREAT MEN ALL REMIND US

How to study biography in planning your career.—Whenever a young man asks me how to proceed in choosing a vocation, one of the things I tell him to do is study biographies. You must examine the various occupations in some way, and the most graphic picture you can get will come from the life stories of men who began at the bottom and worked their way to the top.

If, as Emerson says, "every institution is the lengthened shadow of a man," every occupation stands as simply a collection of human beings who are engaged in it. They *constitute* the occupation, and their combined life histories will give a history of the occupation: a picture of the things one must do in that occupation; the steps one must take in order to prepare for it; the struggles one will encounter in getting ahead; the rewards one may expect. In short, by studying the lives of men who have engaged in a given occupation you can get a pre-vision of what you yourself may become in that occupation. And the particular value of biography is that it reveals

the occupation not in general abstract terms, but in concrete terms. Each biography serves as a graphic illustration of principles which would otherwise remain abstract and generalized.

Profit by the mistakes of others.—Besides their positive value in indicating the profitable procedures to employ in getting along in an occupation, the stories of men's lives have negative value in showing what mistakes to avoid. An old proverb says, "He is a wise man who profits by another's mistakes." If you would know what to avoid, study biographies.

Fortunately, the literature of biography is enormous. People have always been interested in stories of successful men, and so their lives have been written in great numbers. Most of them are worth reading simply as good literature, so much worth while that in a number of colleges courses are offered in "Biography as Literature." But they rise to supreme importance when used in the practical way I am advocating, namely as a means of self-vocational guidance.

Examples of recent biographies.—In making your selection of biographies for this purpose, you had better confine yourself at first to the lives of men who lived in quite recent times. For example,

in choosing the life of an artist, you had better choose the life of Chase who is still living rather than that of Michelangelo who lived several hundred years ago.

Hundreds of these lives pour out of the publishing houses every year. Among those of very recent date may be mentioned the following: Actor—George Arliss, Eddie Cantor, Eleonora Duse; banker—John Pierpont Morgan; advertising man—Claude C. Hopkins; cartoonist—Bud Fisher; aviator—Charles Lindbergh, the Wright Brothers; agriculturist—Luther Burbank; dancer—Isadora Duncan; engineer—Charles P. Steinmetz; movie actor—Harold Lloyd; musician—John Philip Sousa, Paul Whiteman; retail merchant—John Wanamaker; singer—Emma Calvé, Schumann-Heink; teacher and educator—Charles W. Eliot, G. Stanley Hall; scientist—Thomas A. Edison, Michael Pupin; and any number of soldiers, lawyers, and politicians.

Besides these books devoted to the life of a single individual there are a number of books that contain a collection of assorted biographies. Some are devoted to workers in a single occupation. For example: *Eminent Doctors, Their Lives and Their Work*, by Bettany; *Story Lives of Master Musicians*, by Brower; *Great Authors in their Youth*, by Frank;

Eminent Scientists of our Time, by Harrow; *Leading Men of Science*, by Jordan; *Impressions of Great Naturalists*, by Osborn; *Famous Chemists*, by Roberts; *Industrial Explorers*, by Holland. Other collections contain within a single volume the lives of workers in miscellaneous occupations.

Many biographies and biographical sketches appear in current magazines. These you will find listed in *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*.

Outline for the study of a biography.—When you begin to study the biography of a man seriously, you had better adopt some system. I have prepared an outline consisting of a number of questions. As you read the biography, write the answers to these questions. Then when you are through you will have a definite picture on which you can reflect and from which you can draw conclusions.

Let us suppose, for example, that you are interested in becoming a journalist and that you have chosen as your example the life of S. S. McClure, one of the most prominent journalists of the late 'nineties and early nineteen-hundreds. You would go to the library and get his *Autobiography*, then, while reading it, jot down the answers to the questions in the outline here furnished:

STUDY OF THE JOURNALIST, S. S. McCLURE
AS RECORDED IN *MY AUTOBIOGRAPHY*, BY
S. S. McCLURE

NEW YORK, FREDERICK A. STOKES COMPANY,
1924

At what age did he decide to enter this occupation?

Twenty-five (p. 150).

What was the most influential factor leading to this decision? He was offered a job in this field (p. 150).

What other occupations did he seriously consider? None.

In what other occupations did he engage before entering his final occupation? Farmer (pp. 44, 65); teacher (p. 113); peddler (pp. 102 ff. and 128 ff.).

At what age did he enter his permanent occupation?

Twenty-five (p. 150).

What was his first job in this field? Editor of house organ (p. 148).

How did he get this job? Asked for it (p. 147).

How much money did he make per month in this job?

Not stated.

How long did he remain in it? Six months (p. 161).

What was his second step on the ladder? Business for himself (syndicate) at the age of twenty-seven (p. 166 ff.).

How much money did he make here? Nothing the first year; about the sixth year the business netted approximately \$4,000.

Make a vocational ladder showing:

a. number of rungs on the ladder b. earnings at each step c. length of time spent at each step d. age on attainment of each step		AGE	EARN-INGS
	Magazine owner...	35	
	Syndicate owner...	27	
	Editor house organ	25	

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC HISTORY

What was the nationality of his parents? Irish (p. 1).

Were they poor, rich, or in comfortable circumstances?

Poor.

Occupation of father? Carpenter.

At what age did he (the subject of this biography) begin to support himself? Eleven.

At what age was he married? Twenty-six (p. 26).

Did his wife give any special assistance? Care of office and assistant editor (p. 175).

How many children? Four (p. 181).

At what age did he die? Still living.

EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

How many years did he spend in general education?

Twenty-one, with intermittent recesses taken in order to obtain funds.

How old was he when he completed his general education? Twenty-five.

What were his favorite subjects? Arithmetic and history in elementary school (p. 17), Greek and mathematics in college (p. 68).

At what age did he begin his technical education? There were no schools of journalism at that time.

How far from home did he go for his advanced education? Two hundred miles.

What was his customary academic standing in

a. general education? Third in college class.

b. technical education? No technical training

Did he earn his own way through college? Yes, entirely.

Did he go in debt for his education? No.

Drawing the lessons.—From such a study of the life of the journalist S. S. McClure you can glean several principles that will guide you in considering journalism as your own vocation.

For one thing, you can see that the occupation of your father need have nothing to do with your aptitude for the profession of journalism, since Mr. McClure's father was a carpenter.

You can also get an idea of the various phases of journalism that exist. Besides newspaper reporting and editing one might do special and feature writing. McClure's biography presents an especially clear picture of the field of syndicate writing, for he was a pioneer in that field. From his biography we also obtain an idea of the business phase of journalism.

Most of Mr. McClure's worries were connected with this side of the occupation.

By studying the road which a successful journalist traveled, one should be able to infer what kind of training he should seek in preparing for the profession. The obvious course to pursue today would be to enroll in a professional school of journalism. Mr. McClure did not do that because there were no schools of journalism when he was young. Then, too, he did not decide to become a journalist until after his graduation from college.

It is significant, however, that while in college he was editor of the college paper, and we can see a direct connection between that work and the professional bent of his later life. He secured his first journalistic job on the strength of that experience. Accordingly, any college student who expects to become a journalist should work hard on the college student publications.

As to the age when one ought to decide on this occupation, we cannot dogmatize, nor can we even make reliable inferences from the study of a single biography. Nevertheless, from the fact that Mr. McClure did not decide until he was twenty-six we can at least infer that it is possible to succeed in the occupation of journalist without deciding on it at

any early age. Jack London decided at the age of twenty-two; Anthony Trollope and James Fenimore Cooper when they had reached middle age.

Mr. McClure says in his *Autobiography* that he engaged in a number of other occupations before entering journalism—farming, teaching school, peddling, etc. He engaged in these not with any idea of remaining in them permanently, but in order to earn enough money to pay his expenses in college. (He was entirely on his own resources.) It is probable that these activities helped him to be a broader journalist and to deal more tactfully with the persons with whom he was later obliged to deal as a journalist.

One of the outstanding facts that emerges from this biography is that to get ahead as a journalist requires exceedingly hard work. In describing his struggles, McClure writes:

I did every kind of office drudgery, all the things that in ordinary business there are half a dozen people to do. We did the office boy's work and the clerk's work and the stenographer's work. Our office hours were from eight in the morning to ten o'clock at night. When things were all at sixes and sevens, and the business seemed to be fairly tumbling about my ears, I have sat down after dinner at night, and written by hand as many as forty letters to editors, outlining glowing plans for

the future operations of the syndicate. The risks were always immediate and great. Even after I was selling to newspapers enough to feel that I could count on a profit of \$50 a week, a paper taking \$25 service was likely at any time to discontinue its patronage, taking half of my net profits.

When I was serving, say, forty papers, forty copies of the story for any given week had to be sent out, and the copies for the Pacific coast papers had to be mailed ten days before the date of their publication. Making these duplicates was always a harassing question. If I had had them set by a job printer and galley proofs run off, the cost of composition would have more than eaten up any possible profits. So it was my custom to supply the service free to one newspaper that would set from the author's copy and supply me with the required number of galley proofs to be sent to the other newspapers, where the story was set up for each paper from these proofs. Often the paper that supplied these proofs would be late; sometimes, after I had spent an anxious day or two waiting for them, they would come just in time for me to rush them off on the first mail. Sometimes they would be too late altogether for the more distant papers, and I would lose heavily for that week, and perhaps lose the patronage of a paper that had been disappointed. So we lived in turmoil.

Further testimony regarding the hard labor that a journalist must perform appears in Jack London's autobiographical book, *John Barleycorn*:

Early and late I was at it—writing, typing, studying

grammar, studying writing and all forms of writing, and studying the writers who succeeded in order to find out how they succeeded. I managed on five hours' sleep in the twenty-four, and came pretty close to working the nineteen waking hours left to me.

Study more than one biography.—Of course the life of a single journalist is not enough to give a complete picture of the occupation. You should read several others as well. Excellent biographies are published relating to Edward Bok, Louisa M. Alcott, Joseph Pulitzer. By studying them all, you can secure a composite view of the profession that will be clearer than that obtained from any one.

Limitations of this method.—There is one limitation to this plan of studying biographies which we might as well admit. The biographies available for study are almost exclusively the lives of the most eminent persons in their profession. This is because it is the most successful persons who are singled out for biographical uses. This circumstance is disadvantageous in one respect: the picture which a young person will obtain from such life histories may be slightly distorted. It depicts the life as led by 1 or 2 per cent of the persons in the occupation. The chances that most young people who enter that occupation will reach the eminence of the persons

whose biographies they are reading are very slight, and so we cannot infer that the life of the eminent man truly represents that of the majority of workers in the occupation. In spite of this fact there are many advantages to be derived from studying the lives of the most successful rather than the lives of the mediocre, for everyone would like to be successful, and so he should study the methods employed by the successful rather than those employed by lesser men. As the old adage runs, "Hitch your wagon to a star" rather than to a snail.

There is another restriction in applying this method of studying biographies in a wholesale manner. The list of occupations represented in biographical literature is small compared with the number of occupations in which people are engaged. It is confined chiefly to the professions, to the exclusion of the trades. Rarely do we find a biography written about a bricklayer, plumber, electrician, or automobile repair man. The reason, of course, is that men in these occupations have little chance to become famous and thus create a demand for their biographies.

Biographies are sources of rare inspiration.— In presenting this plan of using biography as an aid in vocational self-guidance, I may have given the

impression that the bare objective facts about a man's life are the only valuable elements in the method. Such is, however, not the case. All apart from the value of watching the struggles and rewards that came to the occupational hero whom you study, you will get inspiration from contact with a man who has struggled and achieved. After laying down the life history of a great man you feel a stiffening of your own spine. You will feel an infusion of courage to overcome your own obstacles. You will begin to say, "What that man did perhaps I can do."

In trying to direct your own occupational future read all the biographies you can lay your hands on.

Chapter Five

COUNT THE RUNGS ON YOUR LADDER

Heaven is not reached at a single bound,
But we build the ladder by which we rise
From the lowly earth to the vaulted skies,
And we mount to its summit round by round.
—JOSIAH GILBERT HOLLAND.

Young people do not know what to expect.—Most young people, in dreaming about their future careers, think of themselves as springing full-fledged into their occupations. They picture themselves sitting on a court bench as a judge, traveling to Paris twice a year to negotiate large purchases as a department-store buyer, or singing the stellar *rôle* in a Broadway musical show.

Business executives frequently complain that college graduates who enter their establishments expect to become important executives immediately and, within six months, sit at a mahogany desk pressing call-buttons for stenographers and office boys while they tell a feature-writer on a popular inspirational magazine how they became great.

Though this charge is not fully justified, there is

a deplorable lack of information among ambitious young men and women about the true means by which a person may get to the top in the various occupations. One of the things young people must discover, if they expect to progress professionally, is



THE COLLEGE GRADUATE EXPECTS TO SIT AT A MAHOGANY DESK AND PRESS CALL-BUTTONS

that every occupation which offers any considerable advancement *involves a long, arduous period of service during which the worker must serve in a series of intermediate positions.* And generally speaking, the more desirable the ultimate position

is, the more numerous are the intervening steps and the longer the period of time that must be spent at each one.

The vocational ladder.—We might illustrate such an occupational career by means of a ladder, the rungs representing the various positions that one would fill on his way to the top. To show how it applies I have prepared ladders for several occupations.

For the first one I wrote to the general manager of one of the largest railway systems and asked him to tell me what were the steps through which a man had to pass if he became a locomotive engineer. He replied with a ladder on which the steps were clearly marked. The beginning job might be any one of these: messenger boy, hostler, engine-wiper, locomotive-preparer, ash-pit man. The successive steps of promotion are, as shown in Figure 1, fireman on a yard engine, fireman on a freight engine, fireman on a local passenger train, fireman on a through train, engineer on a freight train, engineer on a local passenger, and finally after perhaps fifteen or twenty years, engineer on a crack passenger train.

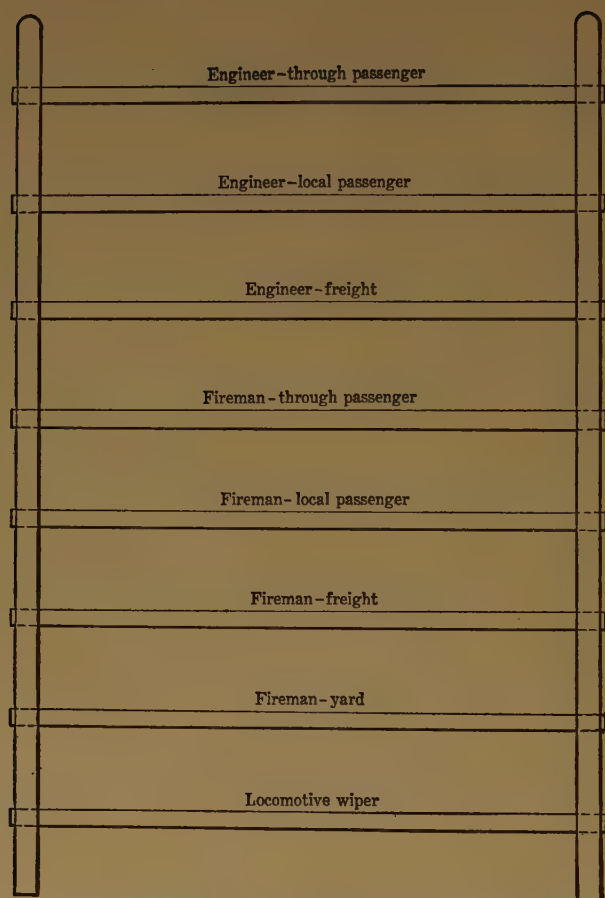


FIG. 1.—VOCATIONAL LADDER FOR LOCOMOTIVE ENGINEER

The ladder for buyer in a department store looks like this:

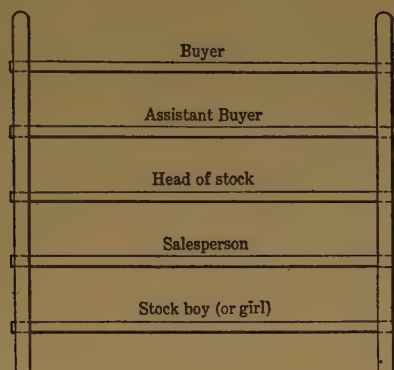


FIG. 2.—VOCATIONAL LADDER FOR BUYER

Here, also, instead of beginning as stock boy (or girl) one might begin as wrapper, wagon-helper, or as file clerk or stenographer in the auditing division, but after that there is a clean-cut line of progression along well-defined lines.

Another illustration is the occupation of university professor. The lowest step on this ladder is assistant in some department; for example, chemistry. After that there are four other steps: instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, and professor.

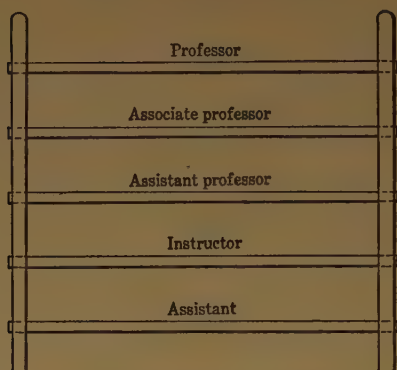


FIG. 3.—VOCATIONAL LADDER FOR UNIVERSITY PROFESSOR

So we might go on examining one occupation after another, and we should see that men do not attain their eminent positions "by sudden flight." They spend considerable time in subordinate positions, obtaining experiences that will prepare them for the higher positions.

Advancement usually comes slowly.—All apart from the necessity of getting experience and knowledge that come only from serving in lower positions, you will be obliged to spend some time in these positions, for the simple reason that there are not enough positions at the top so that the employer could promote all the workers even if they were qualified for advancement. In most organizations seniority plays an important part in determining when a man is to be promoted, and you may be re-

tarded in your ascent up the ladder by the mere fact that there are a number of men ahead of you. To paraphrase Longfellow again, you will have to learn not only to labor, but also "to wait."

From these considerations you can see that there are a number of factors involved in determining the rate at which you will be able to progress in any given occupation and in any particular firm, and no one can foresee exactly what will be your rate of advancement. Nevertheless, you might obtain some idea of the average rate if you should study the combined promotion histories of a number of men who have preceded you.

The question you wish answered is, "How long will I probably have to remain at each stage on the ladder?"

To show how that may be answered let us consider some figures which have been gathered regarding railway engineers. A preliminary tabulation made in the records of one railway system showed that the rate at which engineers progress is approximately as follows: The typical engineer started about eighteen; within five years (at the age of twenty-three) he became a fireman. After four or five years he became a switch-engine man at the age of twenty-eight. He worked at this job three years, becoming

a main-line engineer at the age of thirty-one. In other words, one may expect to work thirteen years before attaining the goal of engineer on a through main-line train. Before he reaches the position of engineer on a crack passenger train he will probably be considerably older. As I said before, these are only average figures. Some engineers do not progress this fast. Others progress faster. Accordingly, from such figures you could not make an absolute prediction regarding your own progress, but you might envisage the future more definitely than you could without any inkling at all.

The army officer's ladder.—An interesting study of officers in the army was recently made by Mr. Roy N. Anderson, which gives illuminating figures showing what a young man who aspires to a military career can expect. This investigation was based on a study of the actual histories of all the officers who had reached the rank of major-general. The military record of each man was studied, and tabulations were made showing the age of each man at the time he attained each rank and the length of time he remained at each rank. The figures were then combined, and average ages were computed. Results are shown in the accompanying ladder. (See Figure 4.)

Major-general	60	\$9,872
Brigadier-general	55	\$7,872
Colonel	53	\$7,872
Lieutenant-colonel	50	\$7,163
Major	45	\$5,898
Captain	36	\$4,272
First lieutenant	29	\$3,352
Second lieutenant	23	\$2,196

FIG. 4.—VOCATIONAL LADDER FOR ARMY OFFICER

* The total of base pay and pay for length of service of an officer below the grade of colonel may not exceed \$5,750 per annum. Maximum earnings of colonel, brigadier-general, and major-general are \$7,200, \$7,500, and \$9,500 respectively.

In addition to the information regarding age at the various promotions, the ladder also shows how much money an officer may expect to earn at each step.

On the basis of these figures a young man who is thinking of entering West Point can estimate his future possibilities as follows:

On graduation from West Point, about twenty-three, he will be commissioned as second lieutenant. His maximum earnings (including rental and subsistence allowances) will be \$2,196 a year. After five years he will be promoted to first lieutenant, where he can earn \$3,352.

After seven more years (age thirty-six) he may expect to become captain, receiving \$4,272.

After eight years as captain he may become major, with a salary of \$5,898.

Promotion is slow up to this point. But from the rank of major, promotion is more rapid, until one becomes major-general at sixty. At sixty-three, according to army regulations, he will be retired, receiving for the rest of his life a certain fraction of the pay he received in his final rank.

From these figures a young man may infer that if he reaches the top in the army he will have to spend the difference between twenty-three and sixty, or thirty-seven years.

Here again we must recognize that these "average" figures do not represent the history of all the men who reached the top. Some moved a little more slowly and some a little more rapidly, nevertheless the majority progressed at approximately the rate shown in the ladder.

Of course not everyone who begins as second lieutenant becomes a general. A man may, for various reasons, be delayed along the line so that he never gets higher than major. These figures will not exactly apply in his case; nevertheless, they do not

differ greatly from the average age at which all officers reach these ranks, whether they go higher or not.

A vocation is a succession of steps.—By these figures I hope I have illustrated the method by which to regard an occupation, namely not as a single job, but as a succession of steps. When you are considering any occupation, turn it into such a sequence. Ask: "What is the first job? What is the second one?" and so forth.

When you are interviewing a prospective employer do not ask merely about the job at which you might begin. Let him know that you want to get ahead. Ask him: "If I make good on this job, to what job might I be promoted? How much might I make in that higher job? What are the successive steps leading to the top?"

Unfortunately, not all employers have investigated the rates of promotion current in their concern and so they may not be able to answer your questions. As employers become more enlightened regarding personnel procedures, however, they will be able to give some fairly definite indication as to what one may expect, and then you will be able to make your decisions more intelligently.

Under any circumstances, the employer will not

make any promises to you. And he should not be expected to do so, for he has not tried you out, and so he cannot tell if you will progress at the "average" rate or faster or slower than the average employee. He should, however, be able and willing to inform you concerning the rate traveled by his employees on the average.

You can make your own ladder in a rough way if you study the occupations carefully. Chart them in black and white; study the biographies of men who have succeeded and see what their experience was.

In choosing your vocation and planning your career avoid drifting aimlessly like a chip on the waves. To avoid this you will need to use all the facts you can get and study them with care. Only thus can you confidently plan the future.

Chapter Six

"MY FATHER WANTS ME TO BE A BROKER"

Parents sometimes violate their children's inclinations.—Winthrop Arbuckle had been told from his earliest days that when he completed his education he was to enter his father's brokerage business.

On graduation from high school he went to the School of Commerce of a large university and spent his time studying economics, banking and investment, and allied subjects in the effort to prepare himself to carry out his father's desires.

All the while he was poring over books on economics, accountancy, and salesmanship, however, our budding financier was afflicted with a great nausea. He loathed them. What he was really interested in was music. All through his boyhood he had studied the piano, had played in the school orchestra, and under the guidance of a skillful teacher had developed considerable technique. Indeed, his teacher prophesied that if he should prepare himself properly he would have a highly successful career as a musician.

In college his business studies palled on him so much that he finally installed a piano in his room and spent most of his leisure hours playing on it. He soon became so highly regarded as a musician that he was commissioned to write most of the music for the college musical shows.

On graduation from college young Arbuckle would have wished nothing better than to begin a musical career, but his father, with loving insistence, demanded that he return home and enter the bond house. Winthrop, being a dutiful son, assented, entered the office, and did his best to make a good partner.

In spite of the best intentions, however, he was a poor business man. Worse than that, he was intensely unhappy, for he loathed his work and he felt that he could do much better work and be much happier if he were in the field of music. Today he is forty-five years old. His father is still living, but the son is responsible for carrying on the business. He is broken in spirit, feels himself a failure, and claims that he has been cheated out of happiness. A tragic vocational misfit because he was forced into a vocation that did not accord with his abilities and his tastes; forced on the basis of a single consideration—his father's occupation.

Some consider only the physical aspect.—Joe Winterbottom was a husky lad of twenty-two, six feet one inch in height, with shoulders that resembled the rock of Gibraltar. He weighed two hundred and ten pounds. One day toward the end of his senior year at college he was in my office, talking about one of his courses. I asked him, "Joe, what are you going to do after you are graduated?"

"Well," he replied, "I thought I would take up salesmanship."

"Why did you pick on that occupation?" I asked.

"Well, Professor, on account of my size. I have been told that a big man can always succeed as a salesman because he is able to impress his customers and overawe them into buying."

"Do you really want to sell?" I inquired.

"Oh, no. I really want to sing." He had a good singing voice; was soloist with the college glee club. Still he became a salesman and stifled his real desires, basing his decision on merely one factor—his physique.

Sentiment must not rule.—Philip Blake was a senior in college. According to the routine of the institution, he was called into the office of the vocational counselor to talk over his future.

"What do you think you would like to do when you leave college?" asked the counselor.

"I am studying for the ministry," replied Philip.

He went on to say that he had been reared in an intensely religious family. He had "got religion" at an early age and under the influence of a revival meeting had dedicated himself to the Church.

The counselor thought he would draw out the boy and see how strong his liking for the occupation was. Very little questioning disclosed that he loathed public speaking. He felt ill at ease in dealing with people. The only subjects he really enjoyed in college were laboratory courses which permitted him to work unmolested by people.

The counselor remarked gently that in view of these predilections young Philip would probably not be very happy as a minister and asked if he had thought of changing his mind.

"Oh, I couldn't do that!" the boy replied. "It wouldn't be right to break my promise. The ministry is a noble profession. I am called to it, and I must not deny my calling."

At last reports he was struggling as minister of a little parish, unhappy and unsuccessful—a vocational misfit because he had the idea that the only moral occupation was the ministry and his conscience

would not let him change a decision he had made as an irresponsible adolescent.



"WHEN I WAS A CHILD I TOOK A TRAIN-RIDE WITH A FASCINATING NAVAL ARCHITECT"

Hero worship may lead one astray.—Henry Morse was having a pretty hard time during his

freshman year in a technical school. He just couldn't master the courses in college algebra and physics. At the invitation of his adviser he came to the office to talk over his difficulties.

"What are you preparing for?" the adviser asked.

"I want to be a naval architect."

Now Henry came from a little inland town in Western Pennsylvania, and, before coming to the Eastern institution, had never seen an ocean-going vessel. The adviser was curious to know how he had come to select the occupation of naval architect.

A little inquiry and the story came out. At the age of twelve Henry had taken a three-day journey in a Pullman car with a kindly gentleman who took considerable interest in him. He was a naval architect and fascinated the boy with sea tales. Henry, in a burst of hero worship, decided then and there that when he grew up he would be a naval architect, too. Of course, as soon as he went to the technical school he discovered that mathematics and physics were indispensable requisites. He could not master either. He had chosen the wrong vocation. His mistake lay in being moved merely by the influence of some one whom he liked.

Some people regard only social prestige.—Mrs. O'Flanagan waddled into the office of the continua-

tion school one morning, leading her curly-headed Patrick by the hand. It was Pat's fifteenth birthday and his mother wanted a working certificate for him. He had just obtained the promise of a grand job in the Savings Bank of Erin and she wanted him to go to work at once. Pat was going to start as messenger at twelve dollars a week and work his way up to teller. Mrs. O'Toole's Michael had gone into the bank at fifteen and now he was teller; stood behind a wicket all day passing out money to ladies and gentlemen. It was the ambition of Mrs. O'Flanagan's life to see her son Pat in such a place.

"Have you any idea, Mrs. O'Flanagan," the counselor mildly inquired, "how long it took Mrs. O'Toole's son to reach the position of teller?" After much mental arithmetic, Mrs. O'Flanagan computed the time as sixteen years.

"Have you any idea how much money he makes as a teller? If he makes as much as the average bank teller, it is about thirty dollars a week. Mrs. O'Flanagan, don't you think Pat could earn more money as a plumber? You know plumbers make eight dollars a day. That's forty-five dollars a week." Pat's report card from his last school did not show great success in arithmetic.

"Do you think I want my Pat to spend all his life digging holes in the street and screwing on pipe joints. No, indade, I want him to be a gintleman."

Under the circumstances the counselor was obliged to grant the certificate, and Pat went off to take his job in the nice shiny bank where he could keep his hands clean.

The error in considering only one factor.—These cases taken from my files illustrate some of the tragic mistakes young men are making in selecting their occupation. The error common to all is that they made their decision on the basis of only one factor or set of factors. In one case, it was economic—the parent owned a business. In another case it was physical—the boy had broad shoulders. In another it was moral—the boy decided to be a minister simply because it was a religious occupation. In another it was emotional—the lad was a victim of hero worship. In the last it was social—Pat's mother forced him into an unsuitable occupation simply because it had high social standing in the community.

These mistakes are reflected in a study of the choice of occupation made by most young people. I

examined the list of occupations chosen by boys in a high school in New Jersey. Of four hundred and thirty-nine boys, fifty said they were going to be engineers, thirty-six physicians, and thirty-six lawyers. Think of it, one hundred and twenty-two—almost one-third—wanted to enter these three occupations.

Now we know very well that when they are grown they will not be in these particular occupations. No community could possibly support one-third of its male workers in these three professions. These choices meant nothing at all except that the boys did not give careful thought to the matter.

Consider the occupation and yourself from all points of view.—In order to avoid making mistakes one should ask himself three questions concerning any occupation he may be considering:

1. What does the occupation require from the physical, mental, and other points of view?
2. To what degree do I possess these qualifications?
3. What rewards does the occupation give from each point of view?

We might represent these points of view by means of the six-sided figure shown below:

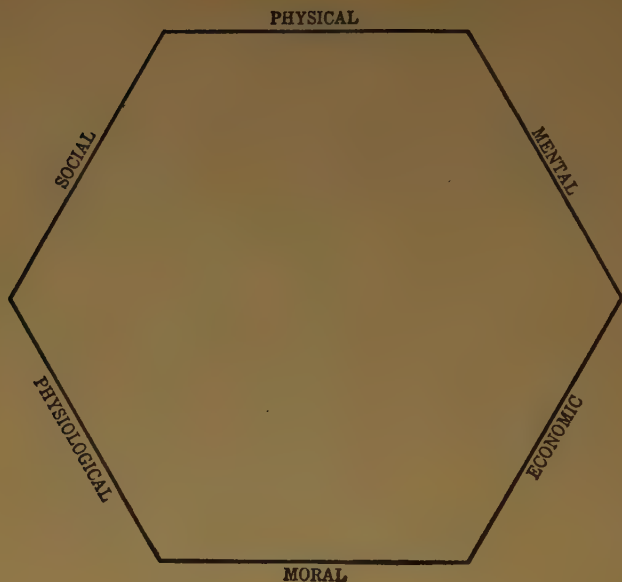


FIG. 5.—THE VOCATIONAL HEXAGON

To show how to analyze the situation let us suppose we are taking the mental point of view and that we are asking, "How much intelligence is required in this occupation?"

Now most of the professions that require a college education demand that a person have an I.Q. (Intelligence Quotient) above the average. For it has been discovered that a person who is not at least ten points above the average experiences great difficulty in obtaining a college degree. Accordingly, in the case of the professions, such as that of physi-

cian, lawyer, engineer, one can safely answer this question by saying that it requires an intelligence above the average of the population-at-large.

The next question is, "How much intelligence have I?" There are ways of measuring intelligence, and by applying to almost any psychologist one can get an answer to this question. If one has intelligence only average or below he surely should not consider entering one of the professions which require a college education. He would probably be much more successful in an occupation that does not require this.

Requirements of an educational nature should next be examined. For example, does the occupation require a knowledge of quadratics, integral calculus, French, etc? You can list such educational requirements and then examine yourself to see if you possess them or can readily acquire them.

Of course there are other requirements of an occupation that may be classed as mental, but they have not yet been precisely determined, and so we cannot pursue this particular inquiry further.

Next ask, "What are the mental *rewards* of the occupation? Will it encourage one to grow mentally or to stagnate? Will it satisfy my demand for

change, or my demand for routine? Will it give me sufficient opportunity for self-expression?"

A matter of especial importance is that of interest. You should, of course, be interested in the occupation which you decide to enter. But merely being interested does not guarantee success. The other relations indicated in the hexagon (page 82) must be favorable. Hundreds of young men and women who are haunting the movie lots in Hollywood are deeply interested in becoming motion-picture actors, but unless they possess or can acquire the other qualifications they will fail.

This method of analyzing the occupation from the mental point of view should be followed with respect to the other points of view represented on the hexagon.

The two that are usually overstressed are social and economic. A boy will select an occupation in which he hears large sums are earned, or which has considerable social prestige attached to it. It is this fact which has filled the "white collar" jobs to overflowing and has depressed the earnings below those made in the trades. A girl will take a job sorting rags in a paper factory rather than serve as a housemaid. In the latter job she could do much cleaner work in more pleasant surroundings, and make more

money. Still she accepts the factory job because in the eyes of her friends it is a trifle higher in the social scale than working as a housemaid.

Any person who decides to enter a certain vocation on the basis of merely one feature of that vocation is likely to fail in finding a satisfactory vocational adjustment. To concentrate on the economic side may mean that he will miss the opportunity to gratify the intellectual or æsthetic side of his nature. To concentrate on the mental side may mean that he will forego economic advantages. A really satisfactory settlement can be achieved only by taking them all into account.

Reconcile all points of view.—Even then it may be impossible to meet perfectly all the requirements of the vocation and satisfy all the sides of one's nature. One must usually sacrifice a little here and a little there. It is somewhat difficult to find an occupation that permits a perfect balance between one's physical powers, one's intellectual capacities and interests, and one's economic and social circumstances. One must often make a compromise so that each of these will be served as well as is practicable.

For example, Monsieur Curie, who discovered radium, was fond of scientific research. He real-

ized that if he engaged in it he would have to forego any very large financial returns. He found compensation for poverty, however, in the joy and satisfaction he derived from scientific work.

Another case is that of a young man with marked artistic talent and tastes who wanted to be an architect. He had tubercular tendencies, however, and could not work long hours over a drawing-table as an architect would have to do. Accordingly, he made a compromise. He decided to become a landscape architect. This permitted him to work outdoors, keep his health, and still satisfy his artistic tendencies.

From this discussion you can see that in trying to find a vocation you must avoid the mistake of deciding on the basis of simply one consideration. There are several sides to the situation, each one of which you must take into account—physical, economic, social, moral, and mental. If you neglect some of them in favor of a single consideration, you are likely to be unhealthy, unhappy, inefficient, poor, or wicked. Since every situation is complex, you will probably have difficulty in finding a vocation that will result in a perfect adjustment in all these respects. Your best solution may come from

striking a happy balance that will give each one the maximum consideration practicable.

The obvious conclusion is that if you want to choose a vocation wisely you had better get a pair of scales.

Chapter Seven

MOST WORTH-WHILE JOBS REQUIRE SPECIAL TRAINING

Training is necessary.—A young man is inclined to think that after he has once chosen an occupation his troubles are over, and that he need only to get a start in it and he will soon reach the top.

The truth of the matter is, most jobs that give satisfactory rewards require special training. General education furnishes a good foundation, but it is not enough. For the world demands—and rewards—special knowledge. Many a college student thinks that by taking a four-year course in a college of liberal arts he will be equipped for occupational life. But when he completes his college course he discovers that while he knows quite a few things he does not know how to do any particular thing. He is promising material, but before he can be worth very much to an employer he must supplement his general education with special training—to sell insurance, cash registers, bonds; to practice accounting or advertising.

Specialties are the vogue.—This necessity for specialized training is becoming more and more sharply accentuated as the tendency toward specialization becomes more marked in occupational life. Take, for example, the practice of medicine. It was formerly enough that a man prepare to be a general practitioner. Today, however, the physician does not stop with his degree from the medical school, but he goes back for more training in some specific field such as radiology, obstetrics, cardiology, and the like. This tendency is present in all occupational fields. Accordingly, a young man can see that if he expects to succeed in the highest measure he must be trained specifically for something.

Schools are also specialized.—Opportunities for securing training in specialties are numerous and varied as compared with the opportunities existing a generation or two ago.

Let us take the case of the legal profession. A few generations ago a young man who wanted to become a lawyer entered the office of an older lawyer as an apprentice. He swept the floor—when it got swept—ran errands, kept books, and in his odd hours read Blackstone's *Commentary*. After several years of this apprenticeship he was considered to be trained.

Today a young man who aspires to become a lawyer completes high school, goes to college, and spends several years getting a good general education. But he does not stop here, for within the past fifty years law schools have been arising in great numbers. Accordingly, the young man enters a law school, where he spends several years taking special training. Even after receiving his degree from the law school he may take post-graduate study, preparing to specialize in corporation law, estate law, or some other branch.

Just as special schools have been developed where one may obtain training in law, so have special schools arisen where one may obtain training for other occupations. Take journalism, for example. A few years ago one who wished to become a journalist was obliged to enter a newspaper office and serve an apprenticeship. Today schools of journalism exist.

A few years ago there were no schools for salesmen. Now there are hundreds. Similarly have sprung up schools for nurses, veterinarians, osteopaths, opticians, dancers, etc. Did you know that there are three graduate schools for the training of department-store executives? There is a school for the training of hotel managers, one for tearoom

managers, and another in scientific laundry work. The number of such special schools is great and is increasing constantly.

In the case of certain highly specialized occupations for which there are no special schools, certain corporations have opened up schools within their own plants, where their employees can obtain the training pertinent to their particular business.

Questions to ask about training.—This insistence upon special training as a prerequisite for success in an occupation points to the conclusion that a young man who is planning a career in a given occupation should give early attention to the training he ought to have. He should secure answers to the following questions:

1. How much general education is required before one can undertake specific training for this occupation?

Difference between education and training.—At this point we should note the difference between education and training. Education is general knowledge. Most occupations require a certain amount of it—knowledge of reading, writing, arithmetic, the geography of the world, something of the literature of the world, something about history and gov-

ernment, about the human body, and about the chemical and physical constitution of the universe.

Such facts constitute a fund of general knowledge and they furnish a good foundation for specialized work. But they do not constitute training for any specific vocation. While they help one to know and to reason, it is training that helps one to *do*. Education is general; training is specific.

Now in inquiring about the training required for a particular occupation you should first inquire how much general education is necessary. For the amounts vary with different occupations. To succeed as a plumber, for example, one can get along with only an eighth-grade education. So with most of the trades if one expects to engage merely in the manual activities of the trade. But if one expects to be an analytical chemist he should have considerably more general education—physics, so that he can use instruments of scientific precision; algebra and possibly higher mathematics, so that he can solve mathematical equations; German, so that he can read scientific reports written by German chemists, etc.

How to determine amount and kind.—There are several sources where you can find the answer to this question about the general education required. One source is alluded to in Chapter III—the books

describing the occupations. Most of them answer this question in fairly definite terms.

Another way to get an answer to your question is to ask some reliable person in the occupation how much general education he would advise.

There is another source. In case the occupation requires training in a special school, such as a school of pharmacy, you will find the entrance requirements specified in the catalogues of the professional schools. Even these catalogues vary somewhat, and so you will have to use as your guide the catalogue of the institution you expect to attend.

Nature of training.—2. The second question you should ask is, "What is the nature of the special training to be secured? Is it mostly class work, mostly laboratory work, or a combination of both? Is there a school or department of a school where one can receive this training? If not, can one obtain the training on the job?" It is highly probable that somewhere in the United States there is an institution where you can obtain the desired training, for, as I just said, schools have opened up where one can obtain training in almost any line. In only a few cases will you have to study by yourself or get training on the job.

Where to get it.—3. Let us assume that you are considering an occupation for which there are a number of schools. You will next ask the question, "Where are the schools that give such training?"

If it is a trade, you will apply to the director of the vocational schools in your community. He can inform you concerning the facilities in your community.

If it is a profession, you had better write to the nearest university. Most universities have a number of professional schools, such as schools of medicine, law, journalism, business, pharmacy, education, dentistry, nursing, social work, mining, engineering, architecture, agriculture, music, etc. Even though you do not attend one of these institutions, you can find some one there who can give you reliable information.

In the case of professional or semi-professional fields which are not included in the curriculum of standard universities, training schools are conducted under private auspices. Examples are schools of optometry, schools for undertakers, schools of aviation, barber colleges.

Consider the quality.—4. After you have a list of institutions, you will have to consider which of them are the best. For schools vary in quality.

Naturally you will be unable to judge concerning this without some expert help. To get this, go to the person in the community who stands highest in the field you are considering and ask his candid opinion. He can tell you at least which schools to avoid. Some of them give only a superficial view of the subject. One criterion that you can generally apply in rating institutions is the length of the course. Some give only a two-year course, some three, four, or five. Another criterion is the amount of general education required before one can enter. In general, those institutions which give the longest course and which have the highest entrance requirements are the best.

Usually there are several that are equally good. Your choice of institution, then, will be governed by factors such as proximity to your home, and the like.

Length of course.—5. The next consideration is, "How long a time is required to secure satisfactory training for the occupation?" Most trades, such as that of bricklayer, carpenter, electrician, and so forth, require three years, one year of which may be spent in school and two years on the job. During this time one studies a course laid down by the labor union and takes an examination.

Professions take a longer time. Nursing requires three years after high school. Training for a lawyer requires four or five; training for a physician, six years in college and medical school, and one year internship, making seven in all.

In the case of some occupations you can secure a shorter term of training, but for the best preparation one usually spends a longer time. For example, while you can take a degree from a school of engineering in four years, you will learn more about engineering if you spend a fifth year.

Some occupations have several grades of service, the grade for which you qualify depending on the amount of training you take. For example, you can become a teacher in an elementary school with only two years' training at a normal school. If you wish to teach in a high school you will need a four-year college course. If you wish to become a superintendent of schools you will need to take an additional year or two of post-graduate work. If you wish to teach in a college or university you should spend seven years (beyond high school) and take the doctor's degree. In general, the higher the job within a given field, the more the training required.

Cost.—6. The next consideration is cost. Before embarking on a career you should find out how much

it will cost to obtain the necessary training. In the case of the trades the amount is not great. Tuition in most trade and vocational schools in your community is free to residents of the community. Training for some technical fields and some artistic lines can also be secured on a free scholarship if one manifests enough talent, although living expenses are usually not provided.

But training for the professions costs quite a sum of money. In the first place, a general college education is usually required. While expenses vary at different colleges, you will need about twelve hundred dollars to spend nine months and live in a modest style at almost any good college. Multiply that by the number of years required and you will know the cost.

Earning one's way.—There are several ways in which you can meet some of your expenses. One is by working on the side. Of the million students in American colleges and universities, about one-half are earning at least a part of their expenses. Some of them do odd jobs such as cleaning windows, caring for furnaces, and the like. Some earn their board by waiting on table. A few engage in more lucrative activities where they are well paid for a relatively small amount of time. Some of them do

tutoring for students who want individual attention, a few earning as much as five dollars an hour, though the more common sum is two dollars an hour. A few students who have received a musical training turn this to account and play in orchestras and churches, where they earn a considerable sum with the expenditure of a relatively small amount of time. Some of the novel ways in which enterprising students earn money are described in Sullivan's *How to Work Your Way Through College*.

You should be cautioned against one thing: If you spend too much time earning money in college you will not be able to give proper attention to your studies—which are the only excuse for your being in college. Furthermore, you will run the risk of ruining your health. Very few students should undertake their entire support while in college. They should have some other source of income.

Lack of money, however, should not deter you from preparing for an occupation which you really desire to enter and for which you are sure you can qualify. If you are unable to spend full time in the institution where training is given, you can probably find opportunity whereby you can secure some training while you are working at a regular job. This would be especially easy in a large city where

night courses are abundant. To take your work by night study will require longer, but if you persist you will eventually obtain the necessary training.

Some training can be obtained through correspondence.—In many occupational fields training can be obtained by correspondence. Such courses vary in quality. Some of them are questionable. Others, especially those offered by large institutions that specialize in training for certain business fields, are excellent. Most large universities also give work which can be taken by correspondence. Your safest plan is to find some good adviser who is an expert in the field in which you desire to obtain training and follow his advice about schools.

One never completes his preparation.—Even after one has completed the required course of training and has received a degree or a diploma from some school, he should not conclude that he has all the training he will need. He can go out and practice the occupation, but if he wants to reach the top he should continue to learn. Developments are occurring, discoveries are being made, in all lines. And to keep abreast of them one must study continually. For example, some physicians go back to medical school for a six weeks' session every few years; teachers spend their summers taking post-

graduate work; advertising men take night courses at universities; bankers study courses offered by the American Institute of Banking, usually in cooperation with universities. Strictly speaking, one never really completes his preparation for an occupation. A good maxim to follow is, "The better the preparation, the higher one can go."

Chapter Eight

HOW TO GET A JOB

Finding a job is the next step.—Even though one has chosen a suitable vocation and prepared for it to the best of his ability, his troubles are not over, for he has yet to find a job. Accordingly, in considering the process of attaining a satisfactory vocational adjustment we should deal with the problem of finding a job.

Consideration of this matter is good even for one who is not just starting out in an occupation, for even an experienced worker sometimes loses his job through no fault of his. Or he may feel that he should leave his present position and look for another. Accordingly, everyone should know the best way to look for a job.

Job-hunting calls for the exercise of real technique and finesse. Most people go about it either in a haphazard and aimless way or else in a panicky manner which by its overemphasis defeats its own ends.

Seek an opportunity rather than a job.—One mistake many people make is merely to look for a

job—any kind of job. Such an approach will not bring you any great reward. You should rather look for a particular job: First, a job suited to your talents, abilities, and interests; and, second, one which offers opportunity for future development and advancement. You had better not consider yourself looking for a job, but rather for an *opportunity*—an opening to future advancement where you can show that you are capable of rendering a high type of service. To regard your quest in this light will create in you a more stable feeling and will be likely to instil in the minds of employers a favorable attitude toward you.

You must sell yourself.—In trying to get yourself placed you will have to do a bit of salesmanship. You are selling your services. To market them you should adopt the tactics employed by concerns who manufacture and sell tangible commodities. They survey the market and find out how many persons there are who could use their commodity, where they are located, and what features of the commodity will especially appeal to them. They also analyze their product and see what it contains. Then they try to bring it to the attention of the buying public, taking care to do so with regard to psychological laws of appeal.

In marketing your services you should employ the same procedure. A good example is furnished by Kilduff in his stimulating book, *How to Choose and Get a Better Job*. He describes a young man who, after spending several years with a concern that manufactured and sold plumbing fixtures,

came to the realization that the opportunities for advancement and larger salary at his present place of business were extremely limited because the concern was small and unprogressive. He decided to make a change to some company that was larger and more active.

Now he could have selected one company and could have made his application to that company for a position. But in view of the fact that he was thirty-three years of age, was married, and had two children, he realized that he could not afford to make another mistake and practically waste two or three more years in a job that later could not offer opportunities. He wanted a position with a company in which he could stay and advance. To get exactly what he wanted required thinking and planning on his part.

After careful consideration, he finally selected a list of twenty-five companies that sold technical products similar, or nearly similar, to those sold by his present employer, that were progressive, and that, from his own analysis of their personnel and product, he believed offered better opportunities for advancement. He even went so far as to ascertain their credit standings in Bradstreet's rating book, to make sure that they were financi-

ally sound. Of course his own knowledge of the trade helped him in selecting his list of prospective employers.

After he had secured his list, he wrote a letter of application to each of the twenty-five concerns. He then had these letters typed by a public stenographer. From his twenty-five applications he received eleven requests to call for a personal interview. He called on each of these eleven and had ready for the interview a carefully prepared sales talk on the value of his services to that company. His calling on the eleven resulted in six definite offers, each of which he tactfully postponed his acceptance of on the plea that he was considering other offers.

He next reviewed in detail the opportunities that each of these six companies offered. And then, and only then, did he make his choice.

Five years have now elapsed. This man is still with the concern he chose. He has been steadily advanced and is now the next in line for the position of sales manager. The last time I saw him he told me that he had made no mistake in his selection and that if he were making his choice over again today he would pick the same company.

Although he chose the company that offered him the greatest possibilities for advancement, it is interesting to note that the salaries offered him by the six companies ranged from thirty-five dollars a week to forty-eight dollars a week. Even if he had considered salary before opportunities, his careful marketing of his services would have meant a difference of \$676 a year. That is another reason why it pays to market your services right and not to take the first offer that comes to you. The differ-

ence in opportunities is even greater, although it cannot be accurately measured in dollars and cents.

Select your boss.—In selecting the list of firms there are at least two considerations that should weigh heavily. The first is proximity to your present location. Remember the employer will probably want to see you and he can easily arrange this if you are in the vicinity. The second consideration is size of firm. Generally speaking, the larger a firm the better and more varied are the opportunities it can offer to you. Therefore, choose the largest and most important concerns that can use a person with your talents and abilities.

Writing a letter.—Writing an effective sales letter to a prospective employer is a difficult task. It is just as complicated as the preparation of a good piece of advertising copy or the construction of a good sales talk. The letter must attract the attention of the employer, hold his favorable interest, inspire his confidence, and most important of all, incite him to action.

Your first objective is not the promise of a job, but the favor of an interview. You wish the employer to write or phone you, saying, "Come around to my office at ten o'clock on Monday and talk about the position." Every word in your letter, then,

should bring about that consummation. A good example of such a letter is furnished by Kilduff:

1664 MARION BLDG.,
CLEVELAND, OHIO.
February 17, 1921.

FARMERS' TRACTOR CO.,
COLUMBUS, OHIO.

GENTLEMEN:

Recently I had the pleasure of viewing a demonstration of your tractor given on a farm near Cleveland. I was so impressed by the effectiveness of the machine that, after a careful consideration of the opportunities offered by your tractor, I desire to seek a connection with your company in the capacity of a sales or advertising executive.

At present I am sales manager of a forty-eight-year-old manufacturing company with which I have been connected since 1914. During this period I have increased sales from \$450,000 to more than \$1,000,000 annually, in a line showing no increased consumption brought by war conditions.

I direct eighteen domestic and three foreign salesmen, handle the more important correspondence with twenty-two dealers, write trade paper and direct-by-mail advertising, and supervise a clerical force of twenty-one persons.

Previously I was for two years advertising manager and assistant sales manager of the Blank Company, Cleveland. There I assisted in the direction of over one hun-

dred specialty salesmen, edited a house organ, and prepared the advertising.

Several years on the road for the Blank Sales Company, Cleveland, selling vacuum cleaners to electrical dealers, contractors, department stores, and householders has given me the familiarity with the salesman's problems and the dealer's viewpoint, so essential to succeed as a sales executive.

Having grown to manhood on a farm, I have considerable knowledge of farm machinery, of the people who buy it, and the dealers who sell it. Because I know the methods that would sell a tractor to my father, or one of my uncles who is a farmer, I can quickly show results in promoting the sale of your tractors.

I am thirty-two years old, married, and have two children. I am making good in my present position and can retain it indefinitely; I am so impressed by the possibilities in the tractor field, however, that I wish to get into it.

An expression of interest will bring to you a portfolio containing samples of my work, the names of references who will vouch for my character and past achievements, and any other information you may desire.

May I submit these proofs of my fitness?

Respectfully yours,

By all means have the letter typewritten on business-size stationery.

Preparing for the interview.—After you have been granted the interview comes the tug of war, the face-to-face interview with the employer. You

should prepare for this just as carefully as you prepared your initial letter. From the standpoint of physical appearance you must be immaculate, for appearances count. This does not mean that you should wear your "Sunday" clothes. Avoid the ap-



DO NOT WEAR YOUR SUNDAY CLOTHES

pearance of having dressed for the occasion. Strive rather to look clean and neat, hair trimmed, shoes shined, clothes pressed, fingernails manicured.

While making these preparations you should also administer a mental tonic by giving yourself some suggestions calculated to induce a calm and courageous mental attitude. Say to yourself: "I

know I am qualified for this position. I am going to make the employer think so, too. I am going to make him want me." Then straighten your spine, act like a man full of confidence, and you will engender a similar attitude in your prospective employer.

But there are other preliminary steps you should take. Before going to the interview, find out all you can about the firm and about the executive who is going to interview you. This places you in an advantageous position at once, for then you know not only about yourself, but also about the firm and its representative whom you are addressing, and then you can talk about yourself in terms of the needs of the employer.

You should take further pains to prepare the sales arguments you will be called on to present. Remember, you are selling yourself and you will have to make a sales talk. Prepare this beforehand so that you will not stumble and hesitate when the time comes. By this I do not mean that you should learn a speech. That would sound stilted and artificial. Rather think over the topics you will have to talk about and decide what you will say. In other words, try to picture in advance the scene and foresee the topics that will form the basis of the interview.

Questions the employer may ask.—Naturally you cannot foresee them exactly and guess precisely what questions the employer will ask you. But you can partially forecast them if you will put yourself in his place. Ask yourself, "If I were this employer what would I want to know about the applicant for this position?"

It is quite probable that he will begin the conversation with some such request as this: "Mr. Smith, tell me all about yourself." Now is your chance. Since this is most likely to be his point of interest, you should sit down beforehand and review the facts of your life which you think would be of interest to him and which might serve to show that you are qualified for the job. Be sure to include the following points: Age, education, experience (especially along the lines of the job for which you are applying). Mention the names of the firms for which you have worked, the length of time you spent with each, the reason for leaving, and the salary you were receiving. The employer also wants to know something about your family, whether or not you are living with your parents, whether you are married or not, how many children you have, whether or not you have paid or are paying for a home.

You might well write down on paper all such

pertinent facts and thus refresh your mind. The employer will probably have you write them down on a formal application blank. If he does not it would be well to write them on a sheet of paper (typewritten) with your name at the top and leave it with him at the end of the interview in case he is going to consider your case.

Answers you might give.—Even though the employer has asked you to state these facts on his application blank, he wants to start you talking, and all the time you are talking he wants to be studying you. He is really not particular what you talk about, but he knows you will talk more freely about yourself than about any other subject, so he is likely to ask the question mentioned above. Meet his request, then, by giving him a frank account of yourself. Begin naturally by saying, "I was born in Peoria, Illinois, in 1905. I completed the elementary and high school of Peoria and then attended the University of Chicago, where I took the course in Commerce, being graduated in 1927. I earned most of my expenses while in college. In July, after graduation, I went to work in the credit department of Marshall Field & Company, where I worked on the books as an understudy to one of the correspondents. I was well pleased with the position. I began at thirty

dollars a week. The first of the following January my salary was increased to thirty-five dollars a week. I was well pleased with my prospects at Marshall Field's and I think the firm was satisfied with my work, but my parents have come to New York and I should like to obtain a position here. I also intend to enroll in New York University for night courses in Credits and Collections and in Business Writing."

Having thought out the best answers you can along these lines, you will find yourself at the interview primed for it, and will speak with directness and without loss of words and time.

The question of salary.—There is one stage of the proceedings that always bothers a person who is looking for a job—that is when the employer asks, "How much money do you expect?" The harried applicant is tortured by two fears. He is afraid that if he puts his price too low he may give the impression that he is not good enough for the place; and if he puts his price too high he may not get the position.

One fairly safe reply to make is, "What do you pay?" This is not always to be recommended, for remember the employer is between two millstones. He does not want to pay any more than he is obliged to, yet he wants to offer enough to get a good man

who will be satisfied. Accordingly, if you wish to put him at his ease do not ask that counter-question.

One tactful answer to make is, "In my last position I earned sixty-three dollars a week, and I really need that to live."

True, this does not directly answer the employer's question, but it gives him some idea of your financial caliber, and it does not commit you to a lower salary than you would like to accept. It leaves the question open for further tactful negotiation.

There is still another way you can meet the situation, and one which makes a good impression on most employers. Lean toward him in a frank manner and say, "Really, Mr. Brown, the pay is not the most important phase of this job. Of course I should expect enough to live on, but the amount I start with is not so important as the amount I can earn with your firm five or ten years from now. What I am looking for is an *opportunity*. If there is an opportunity here for me to get into a good paying position some day, I have enough confidence in my own ability and in your fairness to believe that I shall be able to realize my financial ambitions."

While such a response does not answer specifically the question asked by the employer, it gives him a pleasant feeling toward you. It makes him

feel that you are not wholly mercenary. It shows him you have ambitions, and it lets him know that you expect more money as time goes on.

At this juncture the employer may propose, "How would it do if I started you at two hundred dollars a month, with the understanding that at the end of six months your case would be reviewed, and if you make good you will receive more?" While this may not be as much as you want, it at least serves to break the ice, and saves you the embarrassment of making a mistake. If you want more you can proceed in a tactful way to let him know. If that is quite a bit lower than the salary you received in your last place, you might tactfully suggest, "Of course, that is a lower salary than I had in my last job"; name the amount and wait for him to say something.

Closing the interview.—As I said before, this initial interview is not likely to terminate by the employer telling you that you are hired and that you should begin work immediately. He will probably have other applicants to interview and he will probably tell you that he will put your name on his waiting list and communicate with you if he decides in your favor. Under such circumstances try to make a graceful exit. In a few words thank him

for the courtesy of an interview and give him an assuring smile. An employer always prefers to have around him people who smile rather than those who do not. Tell him that you will be pleased to hear from him, that meanwhile if there is any more information you can give him about yourself you will be glad to furnish it.

Other measures you may take.—Besides interviewing and writing letters of application to prospective employers you can use other means of finding a job. Speak to friends who may be in a position to help. Let them know exactly what you want. Study the advertisements in newspapers and trade periodicals, and apply for those for which you think you are qualified. Hunting a job requires energy and persistence, but most of all it requires the application of intelligence and tact.

Chapter Nine

YOU MAY HAVE TO TAKE SOME TESTS

Tests are commonly used.—Among the new devices which modern management is using is the psychological test. If you apply for a position in a large company you are likely to be asked to take one of these tests. Among the large users of tests are insurance companies, manufacturing concerns, sales organizations, office organizations. Some employment agencies also use them.

Inasmuch as some persons are inclined to be a little nervous when they take one of these tests for the first time, a few samples will be given. Answer these questions, fill in the blanks, and follow the directions, and you will have experienced most of the varieties of tests that are likely to be put before you.

Tests for measuring intelligence.—One of the reasons for giving the tests is to measure the intelligence or mental alertness of the applicant. Individuals vary enormously in this respect. A few are exceedingly alert, a few exceedingly dull, and most

of us somewhere in between. Some firms like to measure the alertness of each applicant either for the purpose of selecting the brightest, or else for the purpose of placing each individual in a job that is within the reach of his intellectual capacity.

While there are a score of intelligence tests on the market, the one you will be asked to take will closely resemble the samples given below. You will probably be handed a test booklet and will be asked to work at it until a young woman with a watch tells you to stop. The time allowed will probably be about twenty minutes or a half hour.

SAMPLE I¹

Directions: If the two words of a pair mean the same or nearly the same, draw a line under same. If they mean the opposite, or nearly the opposite, draw a line under opposite. If you cannot be sure, guess. The two samples are already marked as they should be.

Examples { good—bad same—opposite
 little—small same—opposite

No—yes same—opposite
 day—night same—opposite
 go—leave same—opposite
 begin—commence same—opposite
 bitter—sweet same—opposite
 ancient—modern same—opposite
 enormous—gigantic same—opposite

¹ Test samples 1 to 4 are used with kind permission of the Psychological Corporation.

SAMPLE II

Directions: This is a test of common sense. Below are a list of questions. Three answers are given to each question. You are to look at the answers carefully; then make a cross in the square before the best answer to each question. In this example the second answer is the best one.

Example { Why do we use stoves? Because
 ☐ they look well
 ☐ they keep us warm
 ☐ they are black

1. Shoes are made of leather, because

- ☐ it is tanned
- ☐ it is tough, pliable, and warm
- ☐ it can be blackened

2. Why is wheat better for food than corn? Because

- ☐ it is more nutritious
- ☐ it is more expensive
- ☐ it can be ground finer

3. In leap year February has 29 days because

- ☐ February is a short month
- ☐ some people are born on February 29.
- ☐ otherwise the calendar would not come out right.

SAMPLE III

Directions: In each of the lines below, the first two words are related to each other in some way. What you are to do in each line is to see what the relation is between the first two words, and underline the word in heavy type that is related in the same way to the third word. Begin with No. 1 and mark as many sets as you can before time is called. The samples are already marked as they should be.

<i>Examples</i>	{	sky—blue::	grass—table	<u>green</u>	warm	big
		fish—swims::	man—paper	time	<u>walks</u>	girl
		day—night::	white—red	<u>black</u>	clear	pure
1.		shoe—foot::	hat—kitten	<u>head</u>	<u>knife</u>	penny
2.		pup—dog::	lamb—red	door	sheep	book
3.		spring—summer::	autumn—winter	warm	harvest	rise
4.		devil—angel:	bad—mean	disobedient	defamed	<u>good</u>
5.		finger—hand::	toe—body	foot	skin	nail

SAMPLE IV

Directions: Look at each row of numbers below, and on the two dotted lines write the two numbers that should come next as in the samples.

<i>Examples</i>	{	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16
		9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2
		2	2	3	3	4	4	5	5
		1	7	2	7	3	7	4	7
3	4	5	6	7	8		
8	7	6	5	4	3		
10	15	20	25	30	35		
9	9	7	7	5	5		
3	6	9	12	15	18		
8	1	6	1	4	1		

In addition to these general tests there are a number which are used to select workers for particular kinds of jobs. Here is one that is typical of those sometimes used in hiring persons for the job of cashier.

SAMPLE V

TESTS FOR SELECTING CASHIERS

1. Mrs. J. O. Downing purchases one package of dress-snaps @ 13¢ a package. She gives a 25¢ piece in

payment. How much change will she have coming to her?

2. Miss Elsie Truitt purchases the following items:

5 yards taffeta @ \$3.75 per yd.

Trimmings for dress \$5.10

Dress snaps .25

1 spool silk thread .25

She pays for the goods with a \$10 bill. How much change will you give her?

3. Mrs. Oliver buys a silk waist @ \$12.98, and 1 pair silk hose @ \$3.50. How much change will you give her out of a \$10 and a \$5 bill?

4. J. R. Wilson purchases a silk shirt for \$10.75. He gives a \$50 bill in payment and desires his change in the highest denomination possible. How will you make change so as to give him the desired money?

Here is one designed to see if you are inclined toward work of a mechanical nature.

SAMPLE VI¹

Each picture below marked with a number is USED WITH a picture on the right marked with a letter. Look at picture No. 1, then look at the pictures on the right with letters and write the letter of the picture that is USED WITH it. Then find the picture that is USED WITH No. 2. The samples are done correctly. Picture C is USED WITH picture No. 1, so C is written after 1 on the

¹ Used by kind permission of Dr. L. J. O'Rourke.

line at the right. B is USED WITH 2. "Nail" marked A is USED WITH "hammer" marked 3, so write A after 3 on the line at the right.

Under each set of pictures you will find some questions. In EACH square at the right of the questions, write a number or a letter to show which tools you would use to do what is asked. Where there are two squares be sure to write a number or a letter in *each* square. Pictures 3 and A are used to fasten a board to a box, so 3



FIG. 6

and A are written in the squares at the right after question No. 1. Picture 2 is the correct answer for question No. 2. Pictures 1 and C are the correct answers for question No. 3, so you are to write 1 and C in the squares after question No. 3.

In *each* square on the right-hand side write a number or a letter to show which tool you would use:

(Write an answer in EACH square)

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| 1. To fasten a board to a box..... | <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">3</div> | <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">A</div> |
| 2. To tighten a nut..... | | <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; display: inline-block;">2</div> |
| 3. To fasten a door so as to use a padlock..... | <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 40px; display: inline-block;"></div> | <div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 40px; height: 40px; display: inline-block;"></div> |

SAMPLE VII¹

This type of question is designed to measure "engineering aptitude":

1. Calculate the weight of a steel plate 1 foot square, $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, with a rectangular hole which measures 3" x 8". Steel weighs 0.3 pound per cubic inch.

Answerlbs.

2. A weight of 120 lbs. hangs from one end of a rod which is 8 feet long. The rod is pivoted 2 feet from the weight. What is the weight required at the other end to keep the rod horizontal?

Answerlbs.

3. The 6 links of a chain can stand 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and 100 lbs., respectively. It has been decided not to load the chain more than half of its maximum capacity. What is the largest allowable load on the chain?

Answerlbs.

4. One hundred cubic centimeters of weak acid containing 15% acid and 85% water is to be diluted to contain only 5% of acid. How much water is to be added?

Answercubic centimeters.

SAMPLE VIII

Professor H. W. Hepner has devised a test, of which

¹ Used by kind permission of Dr. L. L. Thurstone.

several samples are given below, for use in detecting "business ability."

Section I. BUSINESS FACTS

Explanation: There are certain facts about general business which every man ought to know. This test is intended not to test your knowledge of the details of business, but some fundamental principle of applied business.

Directions: Some of the statements below are true and some are false. If a statement is true, underline TRUE; if it is false, underline FALSE. If you are not sure, guess.

Examples: The Standard Oil Co. is a small concern
 TRUE... FALSE
 A satisfactory rating in Bradstreet's is an important
 business asset TRUE... FALSE
 1. If a bill is paid by voucher check a receipt is not
 legally necessary TRUE... FALSE
 etc.

Section II. BUSINESS INFORMATION

Explanation: Business men acquire business information according to their years in business and their mental alertness. The more wide-awake a man is the more general information he will pick up. This test aims to measure your range of business information.

Directions: To complete each statement below you have a choice of four words. Underline the word that makes the truest sentence.

Example: The center of the automobile industry in the United States is . . . Philadelphia, Baltimore, Detroit, Flint.

1. The center of the rubber industry of the United States is in Cleveland, Akron, Newark, Buffalo.
etc.

Section III. BUSINESS ARITHMETIC

Explanation: Every person engaged in business must use some arithmetic. These problems will test your arithmetical knowledge.

Directions: Find the answers to these problems as quickly as you can. Use the side of the page for figuring your work. Place all your answers in the parentheses.

Answer

1. Add 4.0125, 1.59807, 412, and 8.763.... ()
etc.

Section IV. BUSINESS RELATIONS

Explanation: In order to think "business" it is necessary to see relationships between business facts and terms. This test will show how well you can perceive these relations.

Directions: In each line below, the first word is to the second as the third is to one of the words in the parenthesis. You are to find this word and underline it.

Example: Shoe : foot : : hat : (toe hand head band). Read this, "Shoe is to foot as hat is to toe, hand, head, band." The correct answer is "head." Underscore "head" as shown below.

Shoe : foot : : hat : (toe hand head band)

1. Captain : ship : : mayor : (state city boss
council)

etc.

Section V. BUSINESS JUDGMENT

Explanation: The big business men of the country are the ones who are able to pick out the important factors in a situation. This test requires you to distinguish between the essential and the non-essential.

Directions: In each row of words below underline two of the five words in the parentheses. These two words are the things which the word in capitals always has or always involves.

Example: MAN (body cane head shoes teeth

1. INVESTMENT (dividends stocks bonds in-
vestor transaction)

etc.

Section VI. BUSINESS-LETTER WRITING

Explanation: One of the requirements of business is the ability to write a good business letter and to correct clerical errors.

Directions: Correct all errors in this letter. Cross out and reword where desirable. Correct obsolete phrasing. Make the quality of the letter such that you would be willing to sign it. Write your corrections above the line.

(Letter follows)

Section VII. MEMORY AND CLASSIFICATION

Explanation: The aim of this test is to see how well you can understand directions and hold them in mind long enough to carry them out. It may be that you have

never done this particular thing, but you have certainly had to do this general sort of thing. The ability to follow directions is essential to business success.

Directions: (1) Place a check mark in column (1) after the name of each man who is less than forty years old and has been in business more than five years and gets a salary of over \$2,500.

(2) Place a check mark in column (2) after the name of each man who is over twenty years old and has been in business more than four years and gets a salary of less than \$3,500.

(3) Place a check mark in column (3) after all other names.

(Test follows)

But the general and specific capacities are not the only aspects that are being measured by tests. An attempt is also being made to see if the employee is emotionally stable or not. By answering the questions below, you show how closely you conform to the majority of people with respect to your minor (or major) worries, fear, likes, and dislikes. If you deviate too far from the norm you might make a troublesome employee. Do not fear to take the test, however, for the chances are all in your favor.

SAMPLE IX

Directions: Answer the questions by underlining "Yes" when you mean yes, and by underlining "No" when you mean no. Try to answer every question.

Do you usually sleep well?	YES	NO
Are you often frightened in the middle of the night?	YES	NO
Do you have continual itchings in the face?	YES	NO
Are you bothered much by blushing?	YES	NO
Do you ever have a queer feeling as if you were not your old self?	YES	NO
Are you ever bothered by a feeling that things are not real?	YES	NO
Are you troubled with the idea that people are watching you on the street?	YES	NO
Are you troubled with the fear of being crushed in a crowd?	YES	NO
Does it make you uneasy to cross a bridge over a river?	YES	NO
Do you think you have too much trouble in making up your mind?	YES	NO
Can you do good work while people are looking on?	YES	NO

Although these tests may appear to be rather formidable, you will see, when you examine them, that the individual elements of which they are composed are really quite simple and matter-of-fact.

Do not fear the tests.—And now that you have taken them you will greet their prototypes in the employment office as old friends. No concern will require you to take all the kinds of tests illustrated here. Most of them will be much easier. Some of

them may require manipulation of simple mechanical apparatus, but these obviously cannot be reproduced in a book.

It should also be said that while these tests are labeled tests of aptitude for engineering, cashiering, and the like, few of them have been established beyond a doubt as veritable tests of the designated aptitude. Some firms place too much confidence in the tests. Accordingly, if you should ever be rejected because of a low standing on a test, do not be discouraged. You might be able to succeed in that occupation in spite of it.

On the other hand, many firms, while not relying entirely on the tests, consider them of enough value to warrant experimenting with. In such a case you will be aiding the cause of science by submitting willingly to the tests.

Under any circumstance, after being exposed to them in this chapter, you should be able to take them without feeling nervous.

Chapter Ten

HOW TO GET INTERESTED IN YOUR WORK

Millions dislike their work.—How many people are really happy in their work? I have asked this question of numerous employers, personnel managers, and workers. The answer I most frequently get is, "About 25 per cent at a maximum."

Employers complain, "Most people don't take any interest in their work. All they think of is drawing their pay checks. They do just as little work as they can and at the same time hold their jobs."

The workers themselves readily confess their lack of interest in their work. Ask a number of people at random, "How do you like your work?" At best you will receive a half-hearted reply: "Oh, it's all right." But you will rarely hear a person say, "I wouldn't give it up for anything." In other words, few people are engaged in work which they do for the sheer love of doing it.

Measuring your interest in your work.—The prevalence of this malady has led me to try to devise a method whereby a person can measure himself

and discover the degree of interest he has in his work.

The device is an Occupational Interest Scale, reproduced below. It is based on the assumption that if a person is absorbingly interested in his work he will prefer that work to any other activity.

Will you kindly indicate, by making a check on the accompanying scale, the degree of interest you have in your occupation (not your present job, but the occupation itself)?

	SCALE
As the 100 degree point, think of that activity	100
in which you would spend the major portion of	90
your time if you had a million dollars and did	80
not <i>have</i> to work. Then check the point on the	70
scale that denotes your interest in your present	60
occupation.	50
	40
	30
	20
	10
	0

FIG. 7. OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST SCALE

It can surely be taken for granted that every person would want to engage in some activity even if he were not obliged to earn a living. This would seem

to be a fair assumption, for no matter how much money a person had he would still have to spend eight hours of his waking time doing something. Accordingly, in using the scale, the individual is directed as follows: "First think what you would do if you had a million dollars and did not have to work. Now consider your interest in this activity as the one-hundred (100) degree point on the scale. Then estimate how far below this point your interest in your present occupation lies, and make a mark on the scale."

Fortunately for the work of the world, a certain number of people would continue to work at their present occupation even if they had a million dollars. Of four hundred teachers who used the scale, 25 per cent rated their interest at 100 degrees. About one-third of the graduate nurses who have used the scale estimated their interest at the 100-degree point. The rest, however, ran all the way from 90 degrees to minus zero. One teacher said she fairly loathed her work and could only express her disgust with it by marking fifty points *below zero*. The interest of several of the nurses was around the zero point.

While I do not have returns from workers in many other occupations, it is highly probable that

conditions would be equally bad in them. Measure yourself on the scale and see where you stand. It would be highly desirable if you could compare your standing with that of a number of other persons in your occupation. Since it has been impossible to use the scale on representatives of all, or even the majority, of the three thousand or more occupations, figures are not available for such comparison. Still, you may be able to induce a few of your associates to measure themselves and thus supply comparative figures. At any rate, you can see how far below 100 degrees your interest lies.

Are occupational interests inborn?—Most of the people who complain about their lack of interest in their work sigh, "If I could only find something in which I was really interested!"

They feel that they must have been born with an interest in some occupation, but have never found out what it is. They have besieged psychologists with requests for some sort of interest test, and the psychologists have obligingly exerted strenuous efforts to devise one. The test that has received the widest use consists of a list of about one hundred occupations (see sample below), accompanied by directions as follows:

TEST FOR OCCUPATIONAL INTEREST¹

After each of the occupations listed below there are three letters. Draw a circle around one of the letters for each occupation, as follows:

Draw a circle around "L" if you like that kind of work.

Draw a circle around "I" if you are indifferent to that work.

Draw a circle around "D" if you dislike that kind of work.

You are not to think of the occupation as if you were choosing it for your profession. You are assuming that you have the ability to do the work of any of the occupations, and that you are indicating whether or not you like the *kind* of work involved in the various occupations, regardless of the relative financial return or social standing incidental to each. Indicate only your interest and satisfaction in doing the *kind* of work.

Draw a circle around one letter after every occupation:

Actor	L I D
Architect	L I D
Floorwalker	L I D
Hotel-keeper	L I D
Orchestra conductor	L I D
Private secretary	L I D
Steeplejack	L I D
Traveling salesman	L I D
Watchmaker	L I D

There is also a list of miscellaneous interests which the

¹ Used by kind permission of Dr. E. K. Strong, Jr.

individual is asked to mark in the same way. The following are samples:

Fat men	L I D	Golf	L I D
Thin men	L I D	Tennis	L I D
Brunettes	L I D	Checkers	L I D
Progressive people	L I D	Poker	L I D
Absent-minded people	L I D	Pet dogs	L I D
Witty people	L I D	Detective stories	L I D
Southerners	L I D	Telling a story	L I D
Geology	L I D	Living in the country	L I D
Spelling	L I D	Mathematics	L I D

The test has been given to workers in about thirty occupations and count has been made of the frequency with which the workers in a single occupation, such as accountancy, prefer certain things in the list. Then it is given to a boy just being graduated from high school or just entering college. His likes and dislikes are then compared with those of the persons in these thirty occupational groups. If he likes the same things as those liked by the accountants, he is encouraged to enter that occupation. If, however, his likes correspond to those of physicians, he is encouraged to enter medicine.

It should be mentioned that the test is still in an experimental stage. It is being developed by Dr. E. K. Strong, Jr., Professor of Psychology, Stanford University, California. Doctor Strong is much encouraged by the fact that certain occupational groups

tend to like similar things, which differ in the long run from those liked by certain other groups. Unfortunately, however, there are certain groups in whom the interests seem to be almost identical and so the test fails to give a clear-cut index with respect to certain occupations.

There is another limitation: The answers which one might make at the age of eighteen would be different from those he would make at thirty-eight. For example, if I had been asked at the age of eighteen whether or not I would like to be an orchestra conductor, I should have enthusiastically encircled "L"; but since that time I have learned of some of the unpleasant experiences orchestra conductors have to pass through and I would emphatically encircle "D."

They come through experience.—This illustrates one important characteristic of occupational interests: They *change with experience*. Indeed, they are *products of experience*. They are not in-born. And when you stop to reflect, you see how absurd it is to think that one can be born with an interest in any occupation. Take the baby just born today. How could he possibly have an interest in any particular occupation? He does not know anything about any occupation. Lindbergh was not

born with an interest in aviation, for there was no such occupation when he was born. President Hoover was not born with an interest in the occupation of President. The first major interest he manifested was in the occupation of mining engineer, quite different from the Presidency.

If occupational interests are not born within a person, where do they come from? The obvious conclusion is that they are developed through experience.

It is true, some of them may become set at a very early age. Among graduate nurses whom I investigated, I discovered that 15 per cent had decided to be nurses at or before the age of twelve. It is probable that in every occupation there will be found a few persons, possibly 10 per cent, who, from an early age, have been intensely interested in a certain occupation. But the majority of people are not in this class. Some persons who have had especially wide experiences get equally interested in a number of occupations. Think of the variety of occupations in which Benjamin Franklin was interested: Printer, inventor, physicist, historian, journalist, diplomat. Count the varied occupational interests of Theodore Roosevelt: Historian, writer, journalist, soldier, politician, naturalist, explorer, geographer.

If, as we have just shown, occupational interests are acquired through experience, you should not complain that you have never found anything in which you are interested. Rather should you *make yourself interested in something*.

How to cultivate interest.—Naturally you ask, "How can I do this?" I shall try to answer that question in the light of a psychological law of interest which has been formulated in simple terms by William James. It is this:

In order to become interested in an occupation, get information about it. This principle was effectively applied by one young man of my acquaintance. He was ledger clerk in a concern that manufactured paper. He was not at all interested in his work. It consisted of nothing but making entries in ledgers day after day and striking balances every month. He wanted to leave the business and find something that would interest him. One day he picked up Professor James's *Psychology* and happened to hit on this statement about interest. "I wonder," he said to himself, "if that really works." He determined to try it out. He laid out a campaign of study in the paper industry. He began with the raw materials and studied pulp-making. He delved into books on forestry to find out what kinds of wood were

used and the values of each. Next he took up the study of rags; then the chemicals used in paper manufacture.

This young ledger clerk became so interested in processes of manufacturing paper that he began to investigate conditions around the factory. At every opportunity he talked with the foremen and workmen and observed operations at first hand.

After he had covered pretty well the raw materials and the processes of manufacturing, he investigated the methods by which the firm marketed its product. He already knew the names of the leading customers, from his work on the ledgers. But now that he knew about the varieties of product turned out by the firm, he began to view the customers in a new light. He began to see that each one had particular needs, and he regarded them not merely as names on a page, but as distributors of the paper made by the firm.

It would take too long to recount everything that this young ledger clerk did by way of informing himself about his firm and its product. During two winters he gave practically all his spare time to this collection of information. It absorbed him and gave him an interest in his work that he never had

dreamed he could have. But this was not the only outcome. He became so well acquainted with the product, the processes, and the firm that one day he suggested to the sales manager that he would like to be considered for a position as salesman. He easily demonstrated his grasp of the subject, was put on the staff, and at last reports was the leader among the salesmen. From an attitude of loathing for the paper business he worked himself into an attitude of great liking for it, all by applying Professor James's simple rule for developing interest.

The remedy is in your hands.—From this discussion you can see that you need not protest that you are in an occupation in which you are not interested, and pine for that occupation in which you were born interested. You can *become interested* in the very occupation in which you are now engaged. Under your feet are the acres of diamonds. By taking the simple steps I have described you can cease to be a slave chained to a kind of work you loathe. By developing an interest in your job you can become a god, a creator. Touched by the galvanic spark of interest, you will see new significance in your work. You will relate it to the great forces driving the universe. As your vision enlarges year

by year, your appreciation of your own task will deepen and you will perform your work, not as a prisoner weighted down by ball and chain, but as a sculptor who lovingly fashions his masterpiece.

Chapter Eleven

HOW TO GET A RAISE

Impatience is human failing.—After a person gets a job and works at it for a few months he begins



"SAY, DON'T YOU THINK IT'S TIME I WAS GETTING A RAISE?"

to think, "I wonder when I am going to get a raise." Especially around the first of the year does a young man's fancy lightly turn to thoughts of a raise. After

this idea gets possession of a man it will not let him go. It eats into his soul as a drop of acid from a leaking wet-battery eats into a rug. In the course of his melancholy brooding he imagines all sorts of things: That the boss is against him; that the company is a heartless corporation. He grouches around the house and complains among his friends. Finally, when the torture becomes too great to bear he gets into a belligerent attitude, walks straight up to the boss and blurts out, "Say, don't you think it's time I was getting a raise?"

Disadvantages in asking for a raise.—Now this is a tactical error on his part. The first error lies in asking a negative question. Such a question fairly shrieks for a negative answer. It will most likely make the boss say, "No!" That would be his easiest course.

But the most serious error is in asking for a raise at all. There are several reasons why it is not good policy. The first is that the average boss does not like to be asked for a raise. It makes him feel that something is being "put over" on him. It implies that he is not competent to run his own business. Even if he should grant it he would feel that he was being coerced, and an executive does not like to be told what to do.

But the second fault in this procedure is that it puts wages on the basis of a favor. It makes a raise become a matter of charity, to be *given*, not earned. This attitude has an undesirable effect on the recipient. It hurts his pride, for no independent individual likes to feel that he is accepting charity.

"What shall I do, then?" the anxious employee asks. "Must I sit still and wait for the boss to hand me a raise voluntarily? If so, I'll have a long, sweet wait."

It is true that in some firms one is obliged to wait a long time for a raise. Many times increase in pay can come only with promotion to a higher position, and with seniority. And in a firm where higher positions are not often vacated or where there are a number of persons above you in point of service you may have nothing to do but wait.

Do not infer from this, however, that your waiting should be simply a passive holding down of the job. There are definite things you can do that may hasten the attainment of your desire.

The boss has worries.—The first thing is to get a proper attitude within yourself. One of the most wholesome things you can do is to take the point of view of the firm. Erase from your mind the idea that the boss is a greedy ogre trying to squeeze out your

lifeblood without making adequate return. Picture his real situation. Here are some of the problems that bother him:

1. He must keep the costs of manufacture and distribution at the lowest possible point so that he can sell his goods as low as competing firms do. Accordingly, he must keep his pay roll down to a minimum. If he cannot compete with other firms he cannot sell goods, and he will have to go out of business.

2. His stockholders are pressing him to make as much money as possible, so that the firm can declare good dividends. If he fails to do so, he is likely to lose his job. And you should not think that all the stockholders are greedy and rapacious. Many of them are widows and children whose sole income is derived from the stock they hold in the concern. A difference of even 1 per cent per year may mean either comfort or privation for them.

3. In spite of the necessity for economizing, the boss wants to get and keep the best man he possibly can in every job.

4. He is naturally good-hearted and prefers to see his employees prosperous and contented rather than poor and unhappy.

5. You are not the only one who wants a raise. Every one of your fellow workers wants it just as

badly as you do. Many of them have waited longer than you have. If the boss should raise your salary he would probably be pounced on by a dozen others who have waited longer than you have, who need an increase worse than you do, and who can present better arguments for a raise than you can. The boss knows he cannot increase the pay of all and so he hesitates to select any particular one. He must keep down jealousy and must avoid any appearance of favoritism if he is to have even a semi-harmonious working force.

6. The boss knows that if he fails to pay you as much as you want there is danger that you will quit and go to work for some other concern. This is a competitive world, and just as he encounters other competitors in marketing his product, so he competes with other employers who are bidding for his good employees. In fact, this is one of the strong points in your favor. The boss knows it as well as you. Accordingly, he will pay you all the money he can consistent with the ease of replacing you. If he would find difficulty in getting another person to fill your place, this factor of other competing firms will weigh heavily with him. If, however, he and other firms can always pick up workers who can do

the work just as well as you do, he will not try so hard to keep you.

These are a few of the things that your boss thinks about when he considers the question of increasing salaries. When you are inclined to be impatient, sit down and take his point of view and you will see your own problem in a different light. Ask yourself: "Am I doing more work than anybody in my department? Am I doing better work than anyone else? Have I given the boss any particular grounds for increasing my salary? Do I deserve a raise more than any other employee in the concern?"

After you have made such a searching examination of yourself from the standpoint of the boss, you may be able to discern why you are not being paid as highly as you would like to be. And after you have found the reason, perhaps you will discover a way to remove it.

Long service is not sufficient qualification.—There is another respect in which you will have to change your attitude. Most persons who work on a salary feel that after serving quite a time in one position they deserve a raise, merely by reason of their long service. Now when you stop to think of it you will admit that simply serving time is no reason why you should receive more money.

Another way in which employees regard a raise is as a stimulus to better work. They say, "If the boss will give me more money, I will do more work, but I won't do a thing extra until I receive more money."

Give more than you are paid for.—Now this is the wrong attitude. It puts the first step up to the boss, whereas it ought to be taken by you. Instead of postponing your extra work until after you receive a raise you ought to do the extra work and show the boss that you deserve the raise. And you are not deserving until you have done *more than the work for which you are now paid*. You are not worth more money to the concern until you have shown that you can earn more money *for them*. It may seem unreasonable to give time and effort for which you are not being paid, but you should regard it as an investment on which you may expect to receive deferred dividends.

In many concerns an employee is only one of many who are doing the same work. As he looks over the large group of his fellow-workers he becomes discouraged. "Here are a large number of fellows exactly like me. Progress for all is bound to be slow. How can I ever get a raise?"

A recipe for getting a raise.—There is a way for you to proceed. In describing it we shall formulate our recipe for getting a raise. It is this: Render a type of service *which is conspicuously above that rendered by any other employee in your group*. Do something that will make you stand out above the others, that will draw favorable attention to you, and, when any raises are being distributed, you will be the first in line for one.

This conspicuousness will also mark you as a candidate for promotion when any opening occurs.

An example of this is contained in the life story of one young man as told by Kilduff. At the age of nineteen Andrews was a clerk in a large bank—one of the credit investigators who do detail and routine work. He was very anxious to get ahead—to earn more money and advance to higher positions in the bank. He thought of asking the boss for more money, but saw the fallacy of that procedure. He might sit tight and wait for a “lucky break” such as the death of some one above him, but that seemed slow and inefficient. Finally he came to a conclusion which he phrased as follows: “I decided that my only chance lay in developing my ability to such a point that I could *compel recognition*.

“I resolved then and there,” he said, in telling of

that turning-point in his life, "that I would improve myself every day. Not only did I perform my work to the best of my ability, but I studied how I might improve on my best record. Then I started to beat the record made by other men in the department. Whereas they usually left the bank at five o'clock, I frequently remained at my desk until six or seven. That way I got the reputation for being a hard worker interested in my job. I really was interested in it, too, and with the added time and effort I was putting in I became even more interested.

"I adhered to this régime for five years without winning any startling recognition. Then suddenly the manager of our department was promoted and of all the men in our department I was chosen to take his place. At the age of twenty-four I had become the credit manager of one of the large banks in the city.

"My recipe for getting ahead worked so well in winning me my first promotion that I determined to continue to apply it, for I wanted to progress still higher. In my new position I studied the problems of banking still more intensively and one day I got an idea about an altogether new type of banking service. I thought it all out, wrote it out in the form of a report, and one Friday I took it to the

president and asked him to take it home and read it over Sunday. On Monday he called me into his office, asked me to clear up certain points about my plan, and then he announced that he favored the plan and that he would recommend its adoption to the board of directors. After a number of conferences I was requested to formulate plans for the new organization. We incorporated and I was appointed manager, with the title of vice-president—at the age of twenty-nine.

“That’s all there is to my story except that I am still planning to get ahead farther. And now that I know the recipe, it will be relatively easy, for all I have to do is to render some type of service that is conspicuously superior to that rendered by other people.”

Conspicuous service is the secret.—This story is typical of most people who get ahead by their own efforts. One thing that will help you in rendering *conspicuous service* is that most employees are not making much effort in this direction, and so by giving an extra push you can easily outstrip them. The experience of one man is recounted in the *Saturday Evening Post* by Eugene Whitmore. This man was a new member of a sales force who determined that he would get ahead by rendering con-

spicuous service. He was quite inexperienced in selling and he had the most unfavorable territory. But one determination stuck in his mind. He must during his first week break some sort of record. "I felt certain," he said, in telling about it afterward, "that I would not be able to break any sales records, but I thought I might at least head the list for the number of calls made in one week. Accordingly, I went out determined to break this record.

"By the end of the week I had made more than one hundred and fifty calls. The following Monday, when I reported at the office, the sales manager greeted me with the utmost enthusiasm. I had broken the record for number of calls made, but, what was more astonishing, I had also broken the record for number and amount of sales. I had accomplished this merely because I had visited more dealers than the other salesmen had, their average number of calls being one hundred.

"I determined to follow my rule of breaking records. One month I determined to break all records for putting in window displays. The next month I went out to lead the sales force in the number of accounts opened. The following month my heart was set on hanging up a new record for number of dealers visited; again I tried to smash records for

the largest number of items per individual order. In a surprisingly large number of cases I succeeded in breaking these various records because no one else tried very hard to beat me."

The more experience you have in utilizing this recipe for getting ahead the more clearly you will see that your task of rendering conspicuous service is not so hard as it seems, for the simple reason that most of your fellow employees are not very ambitious. By putting forth an extra ounce of intelligence and industriousness you can easily surpass many of them, and by expending two extra ounces you will surpass all of them.

On reaching the maximum.—In trying to secure recognition of a monetary sort you may be faced with the fact that you have reached the maximum that can be earned in your present position. If you are to earn any more money there are two things you must do. One is to get transferred to another department where there are opportunities for higher advancement. For example, if you have climbed as high as you can in the accounting department, you will have to get into another department, possibly the sales department. Most up-to-date firms are willing to transfer a good man if he really desires it.

If, however, you do not want to leave the field

of accounting, your only recourse is to leave that firm and get a position with another one. Here again, the principle of conspicuous service works, for by using proper methods you can render such conspicuous service that other firms will hear about you and offer you a higher salary than you are now receiving.

To move or not to move.—In this quest for more money a young man is frequently troubled by the question, "Which is better, to stay with one firm and 'work up' or change about from one firm to another?" Some experienced men advocate one of these procedures and some argue for the other. In the endeavor to ascertain which was right I made a statistical investigation. Through the kindness of the manager of a high-grade employment agency I was permitted to examine the vocational histories of several hundred men. I computed the length of time each had spent with each of his last three employers. I then noted the amount of money he was making in his present position. Surely, if there is any great advantage in staying with one employer a long time, those men who had served the longest terms of service with a single employer should be making the most money. On the other hand, if it

is more advantageous to jump from one firm to another, those men who had spent the shorter terms of service with each employer should be making the most money. On making elaborate calculations with the most refined statistical methods, I found that on the average these two groups were making the same amount of money. In other words, merely to stay in one concern does not generally lead to greater earnings. They must come through some other means.

Summary.—In this discussion we have seen that there are good and bad ways of trying to get a raise. Asking for it is particularly objectionable. The reluctance with which most people resort to it is only one of the indications of its many disadvantages.

Waiting for it is another method. But it is long and wearisome and, with some employers and some jobs, unreliable.

The best way we found was to *work* for the raise. Merely to work perfunctorily or even industriously is not enough. One must work in such a way as to render conspicuous service. The man who wants a raise should spend more time than he is obliged to, should do a better grade of work than that done by any other employee of his class, or should devise

some novel and profitable way of doing a thing. And he must do this before he receives the raise rather than afterward. He must earn more money for his boss before the boss can justifiably give him more money.

Chapter Twelve

YOUR BOSS IS RATING YOU

Progressive firms appraise employees.—While from your point of observation, promotion and advancement in a firm appear to be a matter of luck and uncertainty, there is underneath the surface an orderliness and a plan. The larger the firm the more likely it is to have a systematic method by which to keep tab on every employee and give him the advancement he deserves.

If every employee were doing work that could readily be measured, his record would be easy to keep. But most workers, particularly in clerical occupations and in executive or semi-executive positions, cannot be so objectively appraised. Accordingly it is necessary to devise some new method of evaluating them.

The device most generally employed is some kind of rating scale on which the immediate superior of each employee records his estimate of the employee. The ratings are filed in the personnel office. At the end of every six months the record of every em-

ployee is reviewed and, if it is outstanding, an increase in salary is awarded.

Qualification record cards.—Many firms also maintain a file in which is recorded information concerning the special qualifications of every employee. For example, let us take the record of a young woman who is working in the filing department of a large exporting concern. On her record card appears the fact that she can run an adding machine. This is indicated by a little red tab protruding from the top of her card in the file. She also speaks and writes German. This is indicated by a green tab. Whenever a job in the office is open which requires one of these qualifications, an officer in the personnel department goes through the file. When he comes upon her card he transfers her to the department where the opening is, if she possesses the other necessary qualifications and has the record of being a satisfactory worker.

Such records showing the talents and achievements of employees are of great value to concerns, because most of them have a policy of filling each higher position with some one already on their staffs. They feel that this is only fair to the employees; it offers them an incentive to do a high grade of work and thus qualify for the higher positions. It

also gives the firm the advantage of the loyalty and experience which their old employees have and saves breaking in a new person.

If they cannot find in their files the record of an employee who has the necessary qualifications for the new position, some firms post a notice on the bulletin board to the effect that there is a position open in the —— department which they would like to fill with one of their employees. If any employee thinks he is qualified for the job he is invited to apply at the personnel office.

Perhaps you have read blind advertisements in the newspaper containing a final sentence as follows: "Notice of this vacancy has been posted on our bulletin board and has been read by our employees." Such an advertisement comes from a firm that has a system of keeping records regarding its employees and follows the policy of using them in making promotions.

Some employers use A B C method.—Perhaps you would like to see some of the devices by which your employer keeps a record of your efficiency. Accordingly, I shall describe a few of the systems in use.

The very simplest method is a system whereby each executive in charge of a group of employees

is asked periodically to rate them as A, Very good; B, Good; C, Undesirable. This is quite easy and does not require much time; accordingly, it is fairly popular. As you may suppose, the number of persons who are rated C is small, for the extremely inefficient workers are usually discharged or else they resign voluntarily, and would not be on the force in great numbers. The number of persons who are rated A is also rather small, since only a few workers do really excellent work. The largest number are in the B group, most workers being fairly satisfactory.

With this kind of system you have a good chance to become conspicuous. All you have to do is to perform your duties in such a manner as to merit an A rating for several successive review periods and you will stand so high above the other employees that you will naturally be in line for any rewards that are available.

Naturally, a system of rating that depends on estimates given by superiors admits possibility of error. In spite of the best intentions a supervisor may permit his feelings to enter into his ratings. In the endeavor to reduce such errors to a minimum, many firms have adopted a system of rating that does not ask the supervisor to consider the worker

as a whole, but to consider in turn the separate elements that make up his personality and his fitness for the job. Here is such a scale on which minor executives are rated in one concern:

FIG. 8. RATING SCALE FOR MINOR EXECUTIVES¹

- I. *Appearance and manner.* Ability to inspire confidence and respect through his appearance and manner.

Highest	10
High	8
Middle	6
Low	4
Lowest	2

- II. *Leadership.* Ability to elicit the cooperation of his colleagues and subordinates, to promote morale, and to develop a loyal and efficient organization.

Highest	20
High	16
Middle	12
Low	8
Lowest	4

- III. *Organizing ability.* Ability to plan work wisely, to discriminate the relative importance of its different parts and to delegate its administration properly.

Highest	20
High	16
Middle	12

¹ Figs. 8 and 9 from *Employment Psychology*, by H. E. Burt, used by kind permission of Houghton Mifflin Company.

Low	8
Lowest	4

IV. *Initiative.* Ability to get things done.

Highest	15
High	12
Middle	9
Low	6
Lowest	3

V. *Ability to develop men,* by teaching them about their work, arousing their interest in it, and stimulating their desire to progress.

Highest	15
High	12
Middle	9
Low	6
Lowest	3

VI. *General value to the concern.*

Highest	20
High	16
Middle	12
Low	8
Lowest	4

The rater is asked to make a preliminary list of employees who possess these various traits with the five degrees specified by the terms highest, high, middle, low, and lowest; then to compare the employee he is rating with each one of the persons on his master list; then to assign to the employee the

appropriate numerical standing. The highest score one can make is 100; the lowest 20.

This method is supposed to free the supervisor from the temptation to rate a person too low or too high simply because of some outstanding trait which overshadows his other qualities. It is doubtful, how-

	Lowest fifth	Next lowest fifth	Middle fifth	Next highest fifth	Highest fifth
Energy.....					
Initiative.....					
Leadership.....					
Tact.....					
Organizing ability .					

FIG. 9. ANOTHER RATING SCALE

ever, whether it really serves this purpose. Busy executives are reluctant to spend the time and energy necessary for following this rather involved procedure. It is doubtful, anyway, if this elaborate plan gives any better results than the three-fold rating, A, B, and C.

A simpler plan which involves one of the alleged

merits of the above scale—namely, weighting of each element—calls for merely placing the individual in a numerical grouping with respect to each of his traits. Figure 9 is such a scale.

A still further effort to objectify the ratings has been the development of a method sometimes called the Graphic rating scale. A number of traits are designated in terms of descriptions of the way in which an employee may perform his duties. Figure 10 is a sample rating scale by which one concern rates its foremen. It is reproduced by courtesy of Bills.

As you may suspect, none of these rating scales give a perfect picture of a man's worth. They are merely devices by which fair-minded employers are trying to secure an estimate of the relative worth of each employee.

In addition to using them as bases for promotion, some employment interviewers use these scales in the first interview. If an interviewer is talking with a number of applicants for a certain position he desires to record his impressions in some systematic way so that he can later compare the standings of the several applicants. Accordingly, he rates each applicant on the rating scale and thus arrives at a numerical basis for the selection of the successful candidate.

Appearance. Neatness of person and dress.

Appropriate	Neat	Ordinary	Passable	Slovenly
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Ability to learn. Ease of learning new methods.

Very quick	Catches on easily	Needs repeated instruction
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Accuracy. Quality of work; freedom from errors.

No errors	Very careful	Few errors	Careless	Many errors
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Dependability. How well can he be relied on to work without supervision?

Very reliable	Trustworthy	Usually reliable	Unreliable
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Speed. Amount of work accomplished.

Very fast	Rapid	Moderate	Slow	Very slow
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Cooperativeness. Ability to work with others.

Cooperative	Falls in line	Difficult to handle	Obstructionist
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Constructive Thinking.

Ability to grasp a situation and draw correct conclusions.

Shows originality	Resourceful	Carries out suggestions	Needs detailed instruction
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Ability to direct work of others. Ability to direct and gain cooperation.

Gets maximum efficiency	Directs work without friction	Secures limited cooperation	Wastes man power	Antagonizes
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FIG. 10. GRAPHIC RATING SCALE FOR CLERICAL WORKERS

Varied uses of rating scales.—After this explanation of the methods which modern employers are using to keep track of their employees you can now see how they may affect you. Let us review their uses:

1. *In hiring.*—An interviewer who talks with a dozen applicants for a position records his impressions and then reduces them to a single figure. He can thus compare them more easily and determine who is the most desirable one for the position.

In case he sends the applicant to be looked over by the department head, he can use the rating made by this executive as supplementary to his own.

2. *In determining readiness for increases in salary.*—Firms which make systematic reviews of employees use the rating scale as a basis for granting increases in salary.

3. *In selecting employees to be promoted to higher positions.*—By thus keeping the record of each employee over a period of time a firm can look through its files and judge more accurately concerning the relative merits of persons who are being considered for an advanced position.

4. *For determining who should be kept when layoffs are imperative.*—Almost every concern has periods when it must lay off a certain number of

employees. Department stores, for example, are obliged, after the Christmas season, to dispense with some of their salespersons. They would like to keep those who have the best records and are the most valuable to the firm. A system of ratings enables them to select those who are least valuable and let them go.

5. *For making recommendations after the employee has left the concern.*—Every employer receives inquiries from other employers regarding persons who have formerly worked for him. To trust to one's memory in answering such inquiries is manifestly impossible. With a good rating system, however, an employer can refer to his inactive files, where he will find a record of the kind of work which the individual did and he can pass this on to the new employer.

A rating scale may work to your advantage.—From this description of the practices of big business you can see that, possibly all unknowingly, you have been observed and your talents appraised. I hope you do not take umbrage at this and accuse your employer of doing anything underhanded. As a matter of fact he is making a sincere effort to give you a square deal. Instead of objecting to it, you

should see in it an advantage to you. For it means that you are not being neglected.

One who works for a large firm often feels that he is merely an infinitesimal atom among thousands of employees, that he is lost in the crowd and has



DON'T ACCUSE THE BOSS OF BEING UNDERHANDED

not much chance of being noticed, no matter how good his work is. The fact that the larger the firm is, the more likely it is to have a systematic rating system, should encourage you, for it means that your good work is being observed and that it will all count in your favor in the long run.

Chapter Thirteen

IT'S ESPECIALLY HARD FOR THE WOMEN

Obstacles to woman's vocational achievement.
—A woman who tries to make a way for herself vocationally is under special handicaps. They are not so great today as they were a generation or two ago, but they are still formidable enough to cause much perplexity among the increasing number of women who aspire to a vocational future. Let us list them and bring them into the daylight, so that a woman can see her foes at close range.

Physical.—The first is limitation of physical strength. It is well known that women do not have the strength required in certain jobs, mostly manual. They may have as much endurance as men, but they lack the muscular strength, length of bone, and other animal powers needed in such occupations as digging sewers, hand-trucking, foundry work, certain jobs in the manufacture of steel, in the building trades, and in mining.

This limitation is probably becoming less serious, not because women are gaining more physical strength (though this is a possibility), but because

so many heavy jobs are becoming harnessed under machinery which women can usually tend as well as men.

Social.—But there are still more serious barriers to woman's progress in the occupational world—namely social traditions. One is that woman should not engage in wage-earning occupations at all. A large number of people assert that "woman's place is in the home," and they do not countenance with good grace her advent into outside occupations.

Another traditional idea is that because woman is inferior to man with respect to physical strength, she must therefore be inferior to him in intellectual power. We ought to digress at this point long enough to state that this theory has been found to be false. All evidences that psychologists have been able to gather indicate that woman is just as keen intellectually as man. Accordingly, in any occupation requiring brains a woman can succeed as well as a man if her brain only is taken into account.

But there is another hampering tradition somewhat more subtle. Most people have an undefined feeling that there are certain occupations in which it is not fitting for a woman to engage, such as geologist, mining engineer, minister of a church. If you want to know how strong this prejudice is, talk

with some one who was a pioneer among woman physicians and let her tell you of the ridicule and calumny heaped upon her only a generation ago, because of her temerity in venturing into this occupation. This feeling may be illustrated by an incident recounted by Pruette: "The important problem of electing a valedictorian for the commencement exercises confronted the senior class of a certain high school. The choice lay between a boy and a girl, with all the advantages on the girl's side. The election, however, went to the boy and was determined by the vote of a group who cheerfully admitted the superior qualifications of the girl, but who explained their choice by the remark, 'but a boy *ought* to have it.'"

There are evidences that this attitude is being slowly displaced. Note, for example, the large number of women in Congress and in the state legislatures, where a few years ago they would have seemed very much out of place. Still, prejudice exists in a considerable amount and it will continue to hamper women.

Economic.—The third handicap is that women are traditionally paid less than men who are doing the same work. This is not due to any single cause, but to several. One is that women are usually easier to

secure for these low-paid jobs. Another reason is that many women are so situated that they can afford to work for less money than men can. Some live at home and do not have to pay board. Some are married and use their earnings merely to eke out their husband's income. While this is not the case of all women workers, it is true of so many that they can pull down the entire scale of wages.

But even if these factors were not operative, women would still be paid less than men because of a discrimination which our laws make between men and women. The law compels a man to support his wife and children. It does not, however, compel a woman to support her husband or children. This is one reason why society pays a man more than it does a woman. Of course one might say, "Let that rule operate in connection with married men, but not with respect to unmarried men who compete with women." It is futile to expect such a procedure to prevail, however, for wages are subject to the law of supply and demand, and in paying wages an employer cannot have a number of scales adjusted to the economic and family status of each employee. He competes in the open market for labor and pays only what he is obliged to pay.

We are not arguing here for the fairness or in-

justice of the present system. We are merely describing conditions as they exist in order to show that women face peculiar difficulties which men do not encounter.

Perhaps one of the greatest barriers and one which particularly hampers brilliant women is that in any given line they can usually rise to a certain level and no higher. Take the department-store business, for example, in which women are conspicuously successful. A woman may become buyer or even merchandise manager, but she rarely is given the post of general manager.

Or take a department in a university. A woman may, if she possesses unusual brilliance and skill, climb the academic ladder (see page 66) and become full professor. Even so, her progress is slower than man's. For example, in one large coeducational university the men reached the post of full professor, on the average, at forty-four, while the women did not reach it until fifty-three.

But our present point is that even though a woman does get ahead, she ultimately reaches a point beyond which she cannot go. Rarely, if ever, is a woman appointed president of a coeducational institution. Seldom does she become head of a department, with the exception of home economics or

an allied field. One of the best women's colleges has a rule that a woman may never become head of a department. The reason ascribed is that a man might be unwilling to take orders from her and so the college might fail to secure the services of a good man whom it would like to employ.

The reasons why women can get so high and no higher in various occupational fields are probably quite varied, being mixed up with the physical, social, and economic factors we have already mentioned. Perhaps some of them will eventually have less weight than they do at present, but so far they have hindered women from climbing as high as men can in most occupations.

Biological.—But there is a further circumstance which complicates woman's choice and prosecution of a vocation. She is very likely to get married and thus automatically assume the vocation of homemaker. Since the majority of women marry (80 per cent), it would seem that her future is arranged for. But the matter is not so simple. The young girl of sixteen or eighteen does not know for sure whether she will be one of the eighty who marry or one of the twenty who do not marry. Accordingly, in order to be on the safe side, she casts her eye about for a secondary occupation.

Even if she is going to marry, she will probably not do so immediately after leaving school. For several years she is likely to engage in a wage-earning occupation. She may be obliged to support herself or she may want to work so as not to waste her time in idleness.



SHE MAY NOT BE ONE OF THE EIGHTY WHO MARRY

There is a further contingency. Even if she does get married, a woman may wish to engage in some occupation besides homemaker. She may be obliged to supplement her husband's income in order to support the family or to buy things which the husband's earnings will not permit. Or she may dis-

like homemaking and may prefer to engage in another occupation, even though married.

There is a further reason why she may be interested in an occupation. If her husband should die she wants to have some occupational skill by which she can support herself. Even if she does not become widowed, at about the age of forty or forty-five she will have reared her family and will have a considerable amount of leisure. What would be more natural than to capitalize her wisdom and experience in the occupational world?

For all these reasons a woman may be interested in choosing an occupation outside the home, and may thus need vocational guidance. Her need for guidance is somewhat more acute than a man's, for she has less acquaintance with the occupational world than a young man has. As a rule, boys go to work earlier than girls; they also work during summer vacations, and thus pick up much useful information about occupations. Then, too, boys delve into strange places and make observations that help them to become occupationally sophisticated, as girls, having less freedom, cannot do.

Then there are the peculiar restrictions to woman's employment which we described above. For

all these reasons women need vocational guidance more urgently than men do.

A woman has the advantage in certain occupations.—Despite the obstacles we have enumerated, the plight of women is not entirely hopeless. In some occupations they are rewarded just as generously as are men: Actress, motion-picture actress, opera singer, concert singer, author, etc.

Furthermore, there are some occupations where a woman is employed *because she is a woman*. In these she has very little competition from men: Nurse, tearoom manager, manicurist, librarian, teacher of elementary grades, secretary, seamstress, governess, embroiderer, interior decorator, Y. W. C. A. secretary, etc.

Women hold their jobs as long as men.—In order to obtain light on the true status of woman in relation to occupations, investigations are badly needed. We should know exactly how restrictive are the obstacles she will have to overcome and exactly what are the advantages which her sex gives her. Only by the frank tabulation of facts can the truth be determined. To illustrate, one restriction is the idea which many employers hold that women are undesirable employees because they do not stay as long as men. This idea, which may have been

true once, is no longer justified. In the home office of a large insurance company an investigation was made to see if the men did really stay longer than the women. It was found that since 1921 the women *have been staying the longest*. A similar study made in an investment house in New York showed the same thing.

It is by such investigations that we shall eventually get a true picture of woman's relation to the occupational world. And then the help given her can be better directed.

Vocational guidance for women.—A considerable amount of effort is already being expended in the direction of vocational guidance for women. The National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs is formulating a program whereby its one thousand clubs can cooperate with the agencies that are giving vocational guidance to girls in various communities.

The American Association of University Women is sponsoring an Institute for Women's Professional Relations, with headquarters at Greensboro, North Carolina. This Institute compiles information about the occupations in which college women can go: wages paid, opportunities for advancement, requirements, and the like. The Southern Women's Edu-

cational Alliance, headquarters at Richmond, Virginia, is making similar efforts on behalf of Southern girls.

All this activity on their behalf may in time ameliorate some of the undesirable conditions which women now face in the occupational world. The pioneer women in certain occupations who have demonstrated how efficiently women can work have done much and will do still more to break down certain of the unreasonable barriers, and any young woman who will follow the principles laid down in this book will have a chance, if not an easy chance, to succeed in an occupation if she chooses it wisely and prepares herself thoroughly.

Chapter Fourteen

KEEPING BOOKS ON YOURSELF

"A man without a purpose is soon down at zero. Better to have a bad purpose than no purpose at all."—CARLYLE.

Two philosophies of life.—There are two systems of philosophy by which men live. One may be termed the philosophy of luck. It is based on the theory that people who get ahead do so because in some mysterious fashion they are helped by a powerful force called Luck, which follows them about like a shadow and brings them success.

The number of people who believe in this is enormous, probably comprising half the population. They constantly make such remarks as these: "Some people have all the luck"; "He got a lucky break"; "I always have bad luck."

The other philosophy is quite different. It is based on the theory that people get ahead by means of intelligently directed effort; that the individual himself is responsible for his actions. It is best expressed in Henley's lines, "I am the master of my fate, I am the captain of my soul."

Don't depend on luck.—In trying to determine which of these views is correct, we should analyze them. First we must assert that there is no mysterious force in the universe called Luck. The term is simply a word we apply to occurrences which we cannot readily explain. When we cannot see their cause, we call it Luck. The word is merely a confession of our ignorance. As a matter of fact, everything has a cause, even though we may not see it.

When we ask people who have succeeded in a large way what has been their secret, they do not reply, "I was lucky." Instead, they give a logical explanation, such as "I worked very hard." "I associated with people who could help me." They hold to the second of the philosophies just described. They believe that a person must get ahead through his own efforts and they conduct their lives on a system, the outstanding characteristic of which is planning ahead.

Plan things in advance.—We might liken one's vocational life to the voyage which Lindbergh made across the Atlantic. Before starting he made all the preparations he could. He first examined his plane, scrutinizing every part to see that it was perfectly prepared for the trip. He procured a chart on which were marked the longitude and latitude lines. He

obtained reports from all available sources concerning the weather along his proposed route. Knowing the speed of which his plane was capable, he was able to draw a line showing exactly where he expected to be at every moment during the trip. True, an unpredicted windstorm might blow him a little off the course he had mapped out. A squall might force him to make a *détour*, and a head wind might retard his progress somewhat, but he envisaged his goal clearly beforehand and he planned what he should do under any circumstance that might arise. He attributes his success in this as in other noteworthy flights to the care with which he planned things beforehand.

If planning is so important for a twenty-four hour journey, how much more important it is as a prelude to a life career. Accordingly, we may lay it down as essential to a successful life that one should make careful plans in advance. For an illustration let us go to the life of a certain successful physician of my acquaintance. George Whitson decided at the age of fourteen that he would become a physician. That year he entered high school. He found out what courses would give him the best foundation for his professional work, and what courses were required for entrance into the best schools of medicine,

and so he took those courses. He also decided during his high-school career on the particular medical school he would attend.

On graduation from high school at eighteen he entered the medical school, and because he had chosen his high-school courses with this particular institution in mind, he entered with a clean slate and with no deficiencies. He spent the required six years in studying general medicine and then spent a seventh year as an interne, after which he was granted his degree.

In the meantime, Dr. Whitson had been thinking about the field of medicine in which to specialize. After considering a good many fields—laryngology, gynecology, surgery, and the like—he finally decided to specialize in pediatrics, children's diseases. So he chose the medical school in the country that offered the strongest courses in that subject and took another year of graduate work, following it with two years in a prominent Children's Hospital. Then he was ready to practice for himself.

Locating one's self with scientific precision.—Where should he locate? The way in which he solved this problem was very interesting. He took a map of the United States and bisected it north and south, then east and west. He decided that he

would settle in the northern half because he found there a larger population which would probably offer more opportunity for practice. Then he determined to stay east of the Mississippi River for the reason that there was greater density of population in the East and consequently greater scope for a specialist.

He now had narrowed his choice to the northeastern quarter of the United States. He restricted this area still further by eliminating the Atlantic seaboard, for he knew that there were more pediatricians there and competition would be heavy. Accordingly, he must be in the Middle West. Moreover, he knew that he must choose a city of fairly good size—preferably three hundred thousand or more, which could support a specialist. He also wanted to be near a university where he could have the stimulus of other leaders in the profession. There were only six or eight such cities to consider. He visited several of these and talked with various important persons. Finally he found one city which was expanding its program of education and adding physicians to the staff of the public schools. Through the good record he had made in the medical school he obtained an appointment to a part-time position as physical examiner in the schools. This would

help to meet his expenses while he should build up a practice.

In this city he found a close friend of one of his professors at medical school, who, by reason of this friendship, took the young pediatrician under his wing and referred to him cases which he was too busy to handle.

It is interesting to note that Dr. Whitson even analyzed the city to find out in what quarter he should reside. He found a high-class residential hotel very near the business district, in which were living as permanent guests many well-to-do aged couples who had married children, who in turn were rearing families. Through his acquaintance with the grandparents he was able to get many patients.

By rendering a high type of service to his first patients, Dr. Whitson soon built up an excellent practice. His reputation as a specialist grew, and when the university wanted some one to give additional lectures in pediatrics they invited the brilliant young Dr. Whitson to join their faculty as special lecturer.

From this example you can see how many elements one must take into consideration when planning a career. The good things that came to our young physician friend did not come through any

mysterious agency called Luck. Even the events he could not foresee came as a result, direct or indirect, of his careful planning.

Watching the fulfillment of plans.—But to plan is not enough. One must also check up on himself from time to time in order to see if he is carrying out his plan. We may illustrate this by describing the way in which Dr. Whitson kept account of his income. At the close of every year he computed his earnings for the year, both his gross income and the amount he had left after paying the expenses of maintaining his office. The curve, covering a period of fifteen years, is shown in Fig. 11.

The first year he earned \$2,500 through his part-time work for the Board of Education. From patients' fees he secured \$2,000, which gave him a gross income of \$4,500. His office rent and salary of office girl, shared with another physician, and the upkeep of his automobile, amounted to \$2,700, leaving him but \$1,800 on which to live. That first year he was obliged to request some financial aid from his father.

During the second year he obtained enough patients so that he could live on his net income. The fifth year he made from all sources \$7,000, though

only \$4,000 was net. The tenth year his gross income was \$12,000, and the fifteenth, \$16,000.

This illustrates one method by which a man can check up on himself and see how closely he is fol-

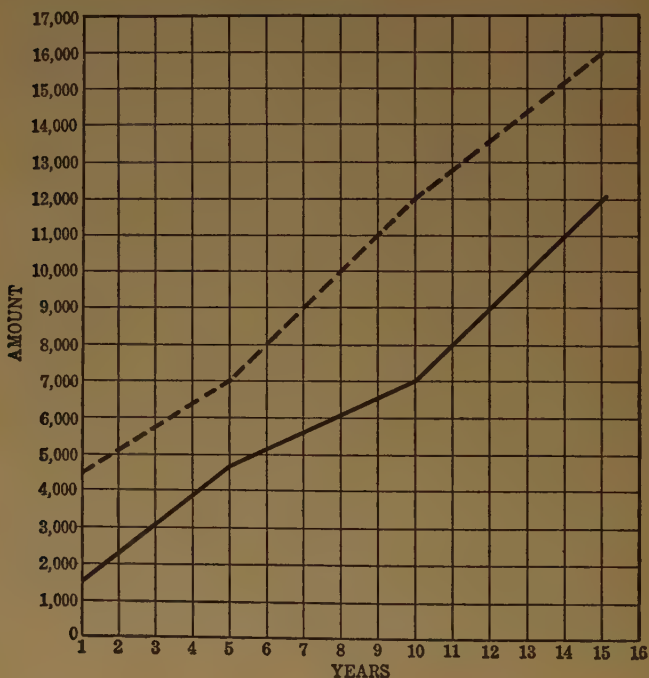


FIG. 11

Figure showing earnings, gross—and net—of a physician during the first fifteen years of his practice.

lowing the plan he has made. There are many other elements of one's career, however, on which one can do self-bookkeeping. Other indices of vocational progress are number of patients or clients, number

of cases won, miles traveled, sales made, customers visited, books and articles written. The units used will depend on the nature of the occupation.

One aspect on which it is important to keep records is physical condition. Have yourself examined annually by your physician and keep a record of your pulse rate, blood pressure, visual acuity, and the like. A very interesting curve would be one showing the expansion of your waist line. All these matters may markedly affect vocational efficiency and they should be the subjects of constant scrutiny.

Successful men plan in advance.—If you will examine the life histories of persons who have accomplished things you will find that they did a good deal of planning and self-bookkeeping. Some information on this point was secured by Professor Burnham, who wrote to one thousand persons listed in *Who's Who in America* and asked them to state the degree to which they had planned their lives in advance. Eighty per cent of those who replied asserted that they were accustomed to plan things in advance. The following extracts from their replies show how these highly successful men carry out this precept:

I began a systematic planning when I was about eighteen years old. I saw that if I made plans I would be

more likely to succeed, and even if I didn't I would learn more from my experience than if I went ahead blindly. Since about that time I have kept a diary in which I enter reflections that I think of value to me in some way, and many of these are in the nature of plans. Practically everything I have done of any importance has been planned. The most important enterprise of my life, probably, was begun at twenty-five—three books on sociology. The three books were planned when the first book was begun, or about twenty-five years before the third book was finished. I have often planned travels of various sorts, jobs of carpentry, and what not. I like to make plans and have planned things carried out. Of course, long-range plans are tentative and are always greatly modified in execution; they are like the preliminary sketches for an artist's painting.

After I established and realized my first ambition, I immediately formulated plans and contacts for further ambitions. I have planned my future for the next twenty years. I have set certain goals to reach.

The reply from the office of David Belasco was very forceful:

Mr. Belasco has a definite program of contemplated productions, three, four and five years in advance. Often circumstances cause changes, but now he has fifteen plays awaiting production over a five-year schedule.

The element of chance in stage production is smaller than is believed ordinarily. Mr. Belasco has reasoned and labored just as any other head of a great concern

reasons and labors—planning coldly and carefully. Always he is being carried away by his art enthusiasm, but basically he plans the production which will fit the social period, or which marks evolution into another period. I would say that there is little accidental success in Mr. Belasco's life.

All the evidence indicates that one should not count luck as a very powerful factor in his vocational career. If, like Micawber, he only waits for "something to turn up" he is not very likely to succeed. One should rather study to find out the demands of the occupations, analyze himself in order to discover his assets and liabilities, examine the lives of men who have succeeded, make plans, and then resolutely fulfill those plans.

Of course certain events may occur which could not be foreseen, but one should plan according to his best light and then, if events require, modify his plans. The modifications will generally be only slight. For example, Eddie Cantor, when he was appearing in vaudeville, could not have foreseen that Mr. Ziegfeld would see his act and offer him a contract. But he did appear at places where Mr. Ziegfeld might be likely to see him, and he did plan that some manager should see him.

Where will you be twenty years hence?—The entire theme of this book has been that a person who desires to have a successful career should plan it in advance. We have described the specific steps that one should take in making these plans, and we have presented methods that are bound to work. Two facts should stand out clearly after a perusal of this book: First, one cannot expect to “fall into” a successful vocational niche without making specific plans and faithfully carrying them out. Second, one must fasten his eyes on a future goal instead of living merely for the present. A good question to keep in mind is, “Where will I be twenty years from now?”

This idea is so well expressed by David Starr Jordan that, with his kind permission, we are quoting his “Call to Young Men” entitled, “Your Afterself”:

Your first duty in life is toward *your afterself*. So live that the man you ought to be may, in his time, be possible, actual. Far away in the years he is waiting his turn. His body, his brain, his soul, are in your boyish hands. He cannot help himself. What will you leave for him? Will it be a brain unspoiled by lust or dissipation; a mind trained to think and act; a nervous system true as a dial in its response to the truth about you? Will you, Boy, let him come as a man among men in his time? Or will

you throw away his inheritance before he has had a chance to touch it? Will you turn over to him a brain distorted, a mind diseased, a will untrained to action, a spinal-cord grown through and through with "the devil-grass wild-oats"? Will you let him come and take your place, gaining through your experience, happy in your friendships, hallowed through your joys, building on them his own? Or will you fling it all away, decreeing, wanton-like, that the man you might have been shall never be?

This is your problem in life—the problem which is vastly more important to you than any or all others. How will you meet it, as a man or a fool? It comes before you today and every day, and the hour of your choice is the crisis in your destiny!

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

A Guide to the Study of Occupations, Frederick J. Allen.
Harvard University Press, revised edition, 1925.

By referring to this book you can find references to the literature on the various occupations.

Vocational Information, A Bibliography for College and High School Students, W. E. Parker, D. H. Moyer compilers, Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1928.

This is another list of references to the literature on the various occupations. More recent than the preceding book. Stresses particularly the occupations open to college men and women.

United States Census. See the volume entitled *Occupations*.

This will give you a list of the occupations in the United States and the number of persons (male, female, black, white) engaged in them; also these facts classified by states and by cities over 100,000.

Vocational Self-Guidance, Douglas Fryer. Philadelphia, Lippincott, 1925.

This book presents a method by which you can guide yourself in selecting an occupation; also some chapters describing in a general way the opportunities in certain business professions.

Success Through Vocational Guidance, James McKinney and A. M. Simons. Chicago, American School, 1922.

Another book designed to help one in finding his way through the maze of occupations.

Choosing your Life Work, William Rosengarten. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1924.

Similar to the above.

The Psychology of Vocational Adjustment, Harry D. Kitson. Philadelphia, Lippincott, 1925.

If you wish to read more arguments against phrenology, character analysis, and kindred short-cuts to vocational salvation, read Chapters V, VII, and VIII in this book.

Life Planning and the Technique of Achievement, Frederick G. Bonser and A. C. Burnham. Ann Arbor, Michigan, Edwards Brothers, 1927.

This book develops the idea that one must make definite plans in order to be successful. The authors illustrate this idea by quoting letters from one hundred men whose names are in *Who's Who in America*. They furnish interesting reading.

Training in the Professions and Allied Occupations. New York, Bureau of Vocational Information, 1924.

This book answers the question, "Where can I obtain training in dentistry, medicine, architecture, etc.?"

Guidance in the Selection of a College, F. Evans. Public Education Association and Child Labor Association of Pennsylvania, 311 S. Juniper Street, Philadelphia, 1925.

Contains good advice concerning the points one should consider in selecting a college.

The College Blue Book, H. W. Hurt, The College Blue Book, Hollywood by the Sea, Florida.

Gives the name and location of every institution in the United States; the name of the president, number of men and women students, number on the faculty, amount of endowment, cost of tuition, etc.

How to Work Your Way Through College, R. F. Sullivan. New York, Clode, 1924.

A chatty description of the ways in which enterprising students have worked their way through college.

Through College on Nothing a Year, C. F. Gauss. New York, Scribners, 1915.

Similar to the above.

Women Professional Workers, Elizabeth K. Adams. Macmillan, 1921.

A fairly detailed description of the jobs open to women in various professions. Shows how much they can earn, which is not very much.

Occupations for Women, O. Latham Hatcher. Southern Women's Educational Alliance, Grace American Bldg., Richmond, Va.

Shows the results of a statistical investigation of college women in the South, chiefly in Atlanta and Richmond. Tells what they are doing and the conditions under which they work.

Girls Who Did, Helen Ferris and Virginia Moore. New York, E. P. Dutton and Company, 1927.

APPENDIX II

LIST OF RATHER UNCOMMON OCCUPATIONS

This list is not complete or even representative. It merely contains occupations which are not commonly considered when one is choosing a vocation.

Boxmaker	Dietitian
Auctioneer	Watchmaker
Superintendent, turpentine farm	Jewelry-engraver
Foreman, orchard	Potter
Forest-ranger	Masseur
Scaler (lumberman)	Dog-breeder
Superintendent of apart- ment or office building	Dog-trainer
Forester	Steward
Apiarist	Butler
Hammer man	Meteorologist
Offset-color pressman	Bacteriologist
Lapidary	Entomologist
Loom-fixer	Building contractor
Slater	County-farm agent
Coppersmith	Interpreter
Wheelwright	Architect { naval landscape
Insurance { adjuster broker salesman	Linotype operator
Probation officer	Monotype operator
	Tree surgeon
	Multigraph operator
	Comptometer operator

Lifesaver	Stenotypist
Assayer	Statistician
City manager	Toolmaker
Taxidermist	Professional shopper
Upholsterer	Fluoroscopic technician
Tearoom manager	Pattern-maker
Optician	Refrigeration engineer
Radio	Traffic-manager
	Credit-investigator
{ announcer	
{ station control man	
{ program-builder	
{ installer	

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